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United States Department of Labor, FRANCES PERKINS, *Secretary*

Children's Bureau, KATHARINE F. LENROOT, *Chief*

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UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY

CHILDREN'S BUREAU
KATHARINE F. LENROOT, CHIEF

WE ARE fighting again for human freedom and especially for the future of our children in a free world. Children must be safeguarded—and they can be safeguarded—in the midst of this total war so that they can live and share in that future.—*A Children's Charter in Wartime.*

• YOUNG WORKERS IN WARTIME •

Supervised Student Labor on Farms

The Stockton Plan

By FRED K. SPOONER AND J. W. HALLEEN, *Stockton, Calif.*

NOTE.—Stockton is in the San Joaquin Valley; in the surrounding area grapes, tomatoes, celery, sugar beets, peaches, and other fruits and vegetables are produced. These crops are harvested by hand, and large numbers of workers are needed. San Joaquin County uses 1 percent of all the agricultural labor used in the United States. In the past migratory labor has been used to supplement resident farm labor.

New Army installations and nearby shipyards, as well as Selective Service requirements, have drawn heavily upon local labor. The Japanese and Americans of Japanese ancestry, who provided much farm labor, were evacuated. The number of migratory workers decreased as other jobs opened up and restrictions on traveling increased. During the 1942 season unusually abundant crops made the labor shortage more acute, and several methods of supplementing the available labor supply were tried. One of these was the recruitment of students as described in the following article.

The article was written by two of the three persons most active in the administration of the student-labor program. Mr. Spooner, the vice principal of one of the Stockton schools, was appointed by the school authorities as coordinator of student labor for the Stockton Unified School District, and through committee action became responsible for the administration of the student-labor program. Mr. Halleen represented the Farm-Placement Section of the United States Employment Service.

During the harvest season of 1942 a plan for the employment of school children in agriculture was developed in Stockton, Calif. The program received much favorable comment; it also received some that was unfavorable, from persons who honestly felt that the standards set were unduly high and that they imposed severe hardships on the growers. It is true that the standards were high, but the reasons behind them were practical, not idealistic. This paper is written to show how the plan evolved, through trial and error. The authors of the paper, who had a great deal to do with shaping the policies, make no claim that they did a perfect job; they just did the best they could under the circumstances.

As a result of the work of a community planning committee on farm-labor supply, the Stockton school authorities, during the last week of school, appointed a coordinator of student labor to give full time to the administration of a program of supplying students as labor for harvesting crops, with proper consideration for their welfare. The coordinator worked in close cooperation with a representative of the United States Employment Service and with a representative of the office of the county agricultural commissioner, who had recently been appointed as coordinator of farm labor in the area.[1] None of these three men had more than a vague notion of what would happen when the students hit the farms. Had they been able to foresee the headaches before them, they probably would have resigned at once.

The Cherry Season.

Before a plan of action could be set up, the labor situation reached a crisis. The area had a bumper crop of cherries, and the usual transient pickers failed to arrive. While the student-labor coordinator was still setting up files (all students from the seventh grade upward who wished to work had been registered) the growers began to demand action.

A quick call was sent out to the schools, and all boys interested were told to appear at the Employment Service Office the following morning, bringing their lunches. It was decided to accept orders only from farmers who were known to the agricultural office and the Employment Service as responsible persons. Only three requirements were made: That all trucks used be securely built and be insured; that workmen's compensation insurance be held by the grower; and that clean drinking water and individual paper cups be provided. None of the farms was inspected. Three hundred boys were loaded on the trucks in hit-or-miss fashion, without instructions; it was assumed that the growers would take care of that. The boys ranged from 13 to 16 years of age, with a few 12-year-olds sneaking in.

[1] The county agricultural commissioner is a member of the staff of the State department of agriculture; this official should not be confused with the county representative of the State extension service.

By noon of that day it was apparent that someone had erred. The five growers who had taken boys were all dissatisfied—even hostile. Two definitely refused to have anything further to do with student workers. The other three were rather dazed but were willing to try again.

What had happened was that none of the growers had been ready with enough equipment for the boys. Only one of them had a foreman who had the patience to handle the situation. The boys had climbed the trees while waiting for ladders, thrown cherries at each other and at adult workers, broken branches and ruined the trees while picking, played tag in the packing sheds, smashed buckets, shrieked and yelled, spilled drinking water, and in general had done everything but pick cherries satisfactorily. On the way back the boys had thrown cherries at passing cars and shouted rude pleasantries at bystanders.

If the farmers were dazed, the directors of the program were more so. They began to pick up the pieces as best they could. They immediately decided to inspect each farm before sending any students to it, in order to see that the necessary equipment was ready and that the grower had provided a foreman who would handle ladders and who could cope with the boy-worker situation. The directors further decided to insist that the students be kept away from adult pickers. A plan was made to have each new group of students met at the orchard by a staff member from the agricultural commissioner's office, who would give them the needed instructions. An arrangement was made with the school district in which the orchards were located, to transport students in school busses for 40 cents each (for a distance of 12 to 16 miles one way). This cost was split equally between grower and student. It was also decided to send only boys at least 15 years old and weighing at least 125 pounds, and to keep the groups smaller—30 was set as a maximum number. Finally it was planned to have the boys assemble at a centrally located schoolhouse and to assign each group definitely to a certain grower.

This program worked a little better, but complaints still came in. The boys did not seem to take the work seriously; they did not stick to the job. There were far too many boys walking away from the job and too much horseplay. The hours were too long; the farmers insisted upon the boys' actually working 8 hours at least. This, with the time spent in transportation, delays in paying off, and so forth, made the days very long. The boys often got back to town very late. The program directors were getting a little tense.

Then it happened. An elderly grower applied for workers. The agricultural representative inspected the farm and found no one there who could possibly handle the boys. He was unwilling to certify the job until a foreman selected by the directors was engaged. The farmer agreed, and an elementary-school principal was hired at $5 a day (to be paid by the grower) to take complete charge of the job. To this job were assigned the boys who had been the greatest troublemakers on other farms. Much to the surprise of everyone, the arrangement worked. This crew made more money than any of the others, although the crop was no heavier than on other farms. Everyone was satisfied. It was the one bright spot of the cherry season, which was, by this time, about over.

Revamping the Program.

Between the end of the cherry season, in late June, and the fall harvest of pears, peaches, tomatoes, grapes, and walnuts, the directors carefully analyzed their experiences to see how the program could be made better. Files were brought up to date, and possible supervisors approached. It was agreed that no students should be used in the harvest until all available regular workers were employed in order that no duplication of services might occur. It was agreed also that the Employment Service should handle the orders for labor, and the school department should recruit the students. The agricultural department was to handle all farm inspections, and no orders were to be filled until the job was certified by it. Later check-ups were to be made by representatives of the three agencies, as often as possible jointly.

The United States Employment Service made careful surveys of all crops in the county, analyzing production and estimating labor needs. These needs were broken down as to period and length of activity and type of labor required and in relation to probable source of labor. The school coordinator by this time had a fairly good picture of the student labor available. The next step was to survey jobs that could be done satisfactorily by students and other inexperienced workers. It was found that most harvest work, as well as certain processing activities, could be done by inexperienced workers, particularly on fruit and vegetable crops. It was decided to concentrate the use of this type of labor on the peach, apricot, grape, nut, onion, and tomato harvests.

The problem of insurance was difficult. All three directors agreed that the student workers should have protection, and the student-labor coordinator was especially interested, as he was

uncertain how much liability he and the school district were incurring through recruiting and placing youngsters. Workmen's compensation insurance was to be insisted upon (as it had been from the start of the program), and accidents in transportation were to be covered by liability insurance for bodily injury and property damage. The amount of liability insurance for bodily injury differed according to the size of the vehicle and the number of students to be transported in it; but the insurance policy was not acceptable to the directors unless it provided, for the smallest vehicle, coverage up to $50,000 for an injury or fatality to one person in one accident, and up to $100,000 for injuries or fatalities to more than one person in one accident.

The type and amount of insurance carried by each grower with whom young persons were to be placed was verified with the insurance company by the school coordinator, and the Employment Service representative explained the requirements to the growers. This overlapping of functions, without friction, was characteristic of the administration of the program. It often seemed best to have the representative of one agency attend to things that would appear on an organization chart as the duties of the representative of another.

Most of the transportation difficulty was the result of the newness of the situation to the farmers. They had never before been confronted with this problem and were unprepared for it. There was, fortunately, only one transportation accident—a minor one. One of the amazing things about the season was the small number of accidents, none of them serious. The student-labor coordinator investigated each accident carefully, requiring a report on each from the supervisor on the job and checking with the physician and the child's parents until the injury was healed.

The Peach Season.

During the peach season, large numbers of girls were employed in the peach dry yards cutting fruit. One of the requirements was that the employment be in conformity with Federal and State legislation regulating employment and work permits.[2] This was particularly difficult to do, as a yard often began as a private, or one-farm yard, and later expanded, doing work for neighbors. The problem of sanitation had to be met, and students were not sent to any growers whose yards had inadequate toilet facilities. It was also considered best to require a 15-minute rest period for girls in the middle of both forenoon and afternoon. Where large numbers of girls worked in a single yard (over 10 was considered a large number) a supervisor was selected by the school coordinator (and paid $5 a day by the farmer), to act as "forelady." The supervisor had a difficult position, for not only was she supposed to keep account of each girl's earnings on a piece-work basis and be responsible to the farmer or packer for the quality of the work done, but she had to insist upon the rest period, make sure that the girls were not required to lift heavy trays, and see to it that the girls were not discriminated against by being given undersized fruit to cut. A crew was withdrawn from the yard of a packer who seemed determined to impose upon the girl workers in this way.

When the peach harvest began another group of agencies was brought into the program. Several farming communities had set up local labor-procurement offices, financed by growers. These agencies worked in cooperation with the United States Employment Service, the agricultural representative, or the school coordinator (each agency checking with the others before taking final action) to good advantage. During the peach harvest a number of crews of boys (never more than 10 boys in a crew) were placed with selected farmers to work without supervision. This arrangement worked well in all but one case, in which it was necessary to threaten action by the labor commissioner before the boys were finally paid. Crews of more than 10 were handled on the supervisory basis.

During the peach season only school busses were used for transportation. The same arrangement was made as for the cherry harvest. Students and supervisors were assigned to definite jobs, and were checked on and off the busses by the school coordinator with the aid of the supervisors. The coordinator was thus able to tell where each student was during every working day and to assure the parents of any who loitered on the way home from the school assembly point that a safe round trip had been made. The peach season was the golden age of the program. Pressure was not too heavy, all the needed agencies were cooperating, transportation of a high standard was available, and the program directors had begun to have faith in themselves and in their fellow men.

The Grape Season.

One experience with the grape harvest is notable. A responsible grower was given a crew of 30 boys and a supervisor. By this time the supervisors' pay had been raised to $7 a day.

[2] Editor's note.—On August 6, 1942, early in the peach season, Child Labor Regulation 3 under the Fair Labor Standards Act was modified to permit employment of children 14 and 15 in peach and other dry yards (this was also legal under the State law), subject to specified conditions.

The grower was so pleased with the boys that he personally recruited at the school assembly point a group of girls for packing. The wife of the grower acted as "forelady," and all requirements, such as those regarding permits and sanitation, were observed. This grower, incidently, gave the supervisor of the boys a bonus of $25 at the end of the 3-week period.

The Tomato Season.

The tomato harvest was late; it did not get under way until after school opened, October 1. San Joaquin County produces 6 percent of all the canning tomatoes grown in the United States. The labor included two parts: picking and canning. Up to this time the canneries had been able to handle most of their own labor problems, calling upon the school coordinator only a few times, at the peak of the peach season. Many boys had been given advice as to how to obtain cannery work, but few definite placements had been made. However, the community had four canneries that were packing tomatoes, and some adjacent communities had twice as many.

Now that school was starting, the student-labor coordinator and the Employment Service representative got in touch with the principals of the two local high schools, the placement officer of a nearby junior college, and the superintendent of the local can factory, who had previously made contact with the canners. It was decided to cut the school programs of all secondary schools to a half-day program—this was done by cutting the length of periods—to attempt to man the canneries with junior-college and college students (and other nonprofessional workers) working 4-hour shifts, and to let high-school students, working not more than 4 hours a day, pick the tomatoes. The 4-hour cannery shift was immediately opposed by the canners on the ground that there was no law prohibiting persons 18 and over from working longer hours, but as the school authorities refused to cooperate on any other basis the canners agreed.

The shortening of the secondary-school day received many justified criticisms. Of the 3,000 students enrolled, the number of students working on an average day was a little over 300. However, some 1,000 students were working at other jobs, and the 300 daily average was maintained by a pool of about 500 students.

There were other difficulties. The inspection service had been withdrawn; this made it necessary to skip some crop surveys. A new group of farmers was being served, and these had to be educated in the proper ways to handle students. Transportation was makeshift, although insurance standards were kept up and fortunately no one was injured. Farmers were short of equipment; buckets were not obtainable and boxes had to be used for much of the picking and often crews had to be laid off for a day for lack of boxes. The farmers had not solved their crop-transportation problems. Many of the growers were amateur farmers who had purchased bargain crops from evacuated Japanese. Conflicting orders so confused the boys that in some cases they resorted to the only thing they were sure they knew how to do—throw tomatoes. There was a tendency at first for growers to give the students poor picking and to reserve choice crops for "professional" crews.

Both boys and girls were used, often in mixed crews; the supervisor of a mixed crew might be a man or a woman teacher. In general, teachers who taught physical education, shop, band, and so forth, to large groups of students were more successful as crew supervisors than teachers of formal subjects. There were, however, notable exceptions.

The lack of sanitary conveniences was serious, and there did not seem to be any way to better this situation quickly. Drinking water was not a bad problem during tomato harvest, as most students found that tomatoes from the vine quenched their thirst better than water.

The hours of the students were too long; they began school at 7 o'clock in the morning and did not usually arrive home until after 6 o'clock at night. The growers were insistent on a 7-day week, and to prevent loss of crops the coordinator compromised by recruiting special Sunday crews, mostly 14-year-old boys (from the upper grades of elementary schools) and their parents.

In spite of the handicaps, including bad weather (which alternated between excessive heat and rain), the students averaged more than 3,000 boxes of tomatoes a day for 30 days. The supervisors were paid 90 cents an hour. The students were paid on a constantly rising scale which began at 12 or 14 cents a box and ended at 16 to 22 cents a box. The best pickers made from $6 to $8 a day of 4 hours. Those who could not make $3 were thought to be too slow to send out again.

Coordination the Key to Success.

In the light of the Stockton experience it appears that if any successful utilization of student and other inexperienced farm labor is to be accomplished, there must be complete coordination of effort of all groups concerned—civic, Federal, State, and county—through a central control agency, with a single person responsible for administrative direction. The successive steps that were found essential in

working out the program were the analysis of crops and crop production; the recruitment and referral of workers, both full time and part time; the centralization and verification of employer orders for workers and the inspection of the farms for equipment, sanitary facilities, and drinking-water supply; and the organization of transportation, including arrangements for adequate coverage of all transportation by public-liability insurance.

The most important factors from the standpoint of smooth operation seem to be, in order of importance, supervision, farm inspection, education of the growers, transportation, recruitment, and assignment. From the standpoint of child welfare the important points are insurance (both workmen's compensation and insurance covering transportation), hours, age, drinking water, sanitary conveniences, safety equipment, and protection from exploitation.

Standards for Working Conditions of Minors Under 18 in Agriculture

Adopted for Stockton

1. Each grower ordering student labor must be interviewed and his ranch inspected;

2. Growers employing children must carry workmen's compensation and public-liability insurance covering transportation;

3. A supervisor, satisfactory to the inspector, must accompany each group of 10 or more children;

4. Student crews must be segregated from other workers;

5. An 8-hour day must be the maximum for crews including any members under 16 years of age;

6. New crews must be trained at the ranch by a member of the county agricultural-department staff;

7. Crews must leave the assembly point and be returned by the grower at specified times;

8. Transportation must be by school bus, or safe trucks with solid sides, closed backs, and adequate seating arrangements, driven by a licensed chauffeur;

9. The minimum age must be 15 years, and the minimum weight 125 pounds for young workers doing difficult work such as fruit picking;

10. Ladders must be moved by adults;

11. Drinking water must be obtained from a source used by the ranch family for a prior period of 30 days without illness, and individual cups must be provided.

12. Later, when girls were placed through the program, standards were revised to require a rest period of 15 minutes in the morning and afternoon and a 1-hour lunch period.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

BOOK NOTES

Trend of Child Labor, 1939 to 1942. by Ella Arvilla Merritt. *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 56, No. 3 (March 1943), pp. 450–467. Reprints available from Children's Bureau.

That there is a very large increase in the number of boys and girls between 14 and 18 years of age going to work throughout the country is shown by figures for employment certificates issued that are reported to the Children's Bureau. Employment certificates reported for 14- and 15-year-old children going to work full-time or part-time increased from approximately 37,000 in 1940 to nearly 66,000 in 1941; and those for 16- and 17-year-old boys and girls, from about 160,000 to more than 370,000. These reports do not show illegal employment, which is increasing, nor do they include children going to work in occupations for which certificates are not required.

In some of the States and cities for which 1942 figures were available the percentage increase from 1940 to 1942 in regular and vacation certificates issued was very striking. For instance, for 14- and 15-year-old children the increase ranged from 182 percent in North Carolina to 541 percent in Pittsburgh, Pa.; and for 16- and 17-year-old minors, from 176 percent in North Carolina to 838 percent in Oregon.

Wartime Employment of Boys and Girls Under 18. Children's Bureau Publication 289, Washington, 1943. 16 pp.

This pamphlet points out the dangers implicit in the tremendous increase in the number of boys and girls under 18 leaving school for work and stresses their need for protection from loss of educational opportunity and from undue physical strain and work hazards. Available data on the number, age, sex, and occupation of young workers under 18 are discussed, and developments in the field of child-labor and school-attendance laws are reviewed. In conclusion, the principles that should underlie plans for the wise participation of youth in wartime employment are outlined.

Security for Children in Post-War Years

Objectives of State and Community Action

By Emma O. Lundberg

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Note.—Preprinted from revised edition of Our Concern—Every Child. The first section, The Welfare of Children in Peace and in War, appeared in *The Child* for June 1943.

The objectives that have been defined for the children of this Nation will not be attained through declarations of ideals and principles but through effective action in each State and in each community. Fulfillment of some of these aims will require assistance by the Federal Government to enable State and local units to provide essential resources for the health, education, and social-welfare needs of children. In addition to their direct responsibilities for child care and protection, safeguarding health, and promoting education, States have the important task of providing leadership and financial aid to local units of government. But it is upon the thousands of local communities throughout the country that the chief responsibility rests for initiating and for carrying through the measures that are needed if all their children are to be protected in their inherent rights to the security of a home, health protection, and educational and recreational opportunities.

Security of the Home

Secure family life is the background of child welfare. Programs for social insurance, public assistance, and prevention of unemployment, and for improving housing, safeguarding public health, and making more generally available the essentials of an American standard of living are being formulated as fundamental parts of post-war planning. These are basic measures for the protection of children. No ameliorative or child-caring activities can compensate a child for the loss of the security which he should find in his home; no protective measures can make up to him for malnourishment and unsanitary living conditions in childhood.

Economic security which will make it possible for families, wherever they may live and whatever may be their station in life, to provide for their families in accordance with a decent standard of American living is the first and by far the most important step in preserving home life. The greatest cause of child dependency—broken homes—would be greatly reduced by various forms of social insurance which lessen the burden of families when the death or disability of the wage earner threatens the stability of the home. Well-administered and adequate public assistance to families who require such aid in order to give their children proper care is an essential part of the program for family security.

For more than 30 years public aid to dependent children in their own homes has been emphasized as a primary child-welfare measure, and within the past few years, through the Social Security Act, great advance has been made in provision for children deprived of parental support. The assistance given under this form of public aid is still far from adequate in most of the State and local units of government, both with respect to the adequacy of family grants and the small proportion of children in each community in need of such aid who are receiving assistance. Consideration should be given to measures which would equalize Federal grants to States, and State aid to local units, in accordance with the financial ability of the State or the local unit to supply the necessary funds. With the help of the State administrative agency, every community should make a careful study of the need for aid to children in their own homes, the extent to which the need is now being met, and the strengths, the shortcomings, and the financial resources of the responsible administrative agency, and should face the question of how this form of assistance may be made a more effective instrument in preserving home life in the post-war years.

Protection of Child Health

In order that the health of its citizens may be protected, States have provided health services,

supported in part through Federal funds, to local units of government to assist them in making certain types of medical care available. But the character of the health program of the community depends upon the concern which the county, city, village, or town itself has for the health and well-being of its inhabitants. Every community has the responsibility of safeguarding the health of all its members through enforcement of sanitary regulations, control of contagious diseases, and promotion of adequate housing facilities. It is also the obligation of the community to see to it that preventive and curative health services and medical care are available to the entire population, to those who are unable to pay for necessary services as well as to those who are economically able to procure for themselves all the essentials of the family's health.

The first essential of a well-rounded community program for the protection of child health is a full-time local public-health service organized on a county, city, or district basis and provided with adequate funds and qualified staff.

Health measures of primary importance to children which should be available through services of qualified physicians, public-health nurses, clinics, or hospitals include:[1]

Medical and nursing care for all women during maternity and for all newborn infants.
Supervision of the health and development of all infants and children at stated intervals.
Health instruction in schools and health education of parents in methods of conserving both physical and mental health.
Effective nutrition services.
Medical care when needed.

The cost of preventive services and medical care must be faced squarely. Through a program of education the public must be brought to realize the vital importance of the proposed health measures and their relationship to family life and to education and social welfare.

Educational Opportunity

Equality of opportunity for education is the cornerstone of democracy. The war emergency has brought into the foreground many inequalities and shortcomings of educational systems now in operation. Post-war education will be faced with many new problems brought about by wartime shortages of teachers and inadequacy of funds required to maintain recognized standards of buildings and equipment. But there will also have come a more general understanding of the need for making available to all children, regardless of race or place of habitation, those opportunities which will give to every child the chance to grow into a well-balanced, useful citizen. Each State and each community must meet this challenge in a realistic way.

Physical handicaps should not deprive children of academic training and the chance to develop latent talents and abilities. Special school facilities are essential for adequate training of children who are blind or have defective vision, who are deaf or hard of hearing, crippled or unable to attend the regular classes because of chronic illness. In order that they may become community assets and not liabilities, mentally deficient children should receive suitable training up to the limit of their capacities. All too few States and communities have assumed full responsibility for the education of those who are unable to share in the school programs of more fortunate children. The obligation for making special training available to all children who need it rests with the States as well as the local communities.

Educational opportunity includes much more than provision of primary and secondary schools and special training for those equipped to profit by it. It means also making available to children, and adults as well, the services of public libraries and the instructive media which communities may offer through study clubs, lectures, museums, and various forms of visual instruction. Much that is thought of primarily as recreation, such as boys' and girls' clubs, "scouting," camping, and similar activities which help to develop character and provide an outlet for individual interests and talents should also be planned for because of its educational values. A community program which is designed to provide full educational opportunities to boys and girls should take into account these means of mental as well as physical growth.

Conditions resulting from the war have emphasized the direct relationship between the increasing problem of juvenile delinquency and the absence of adequate school facilities in communities supplying war materials. Children are denied the fundamentals of an education and are left to roam the streets and follow their own devices because enough schools have not been provided to permit enrollment of all children of school age. Half-day sessions, inadequate equipment, and a poorly paid and ill-equipped teaching staff rob many children of the basic education which should be guaranteed to every child. These conditions are in urgent need of correction as wartime measures; in the post-war years every child should have available

[1] Children in a Democracy. General Report adopted by the White House Conference, January 19, 1940. pp. 58–59.

schooling which will prepare him for responsible citizenship.

Child Labor

Protection against child labor is closely allied to the subject of educational opportunity. So long as children and youth are compelled by economic necessity to seek employment at an age when they should be receiving an education, and so long as laws regulating child labor fail to provide essential protection, children will be deprived of the schooling which is their due, and physically immature boys and girls will engage in work which not only stunts their minds but which may injure their bodies.

Greatly increased employment of children has revealed weaknesses and gaps in child-labor protection in many States. Those undertaking planning for post-war years should ascertain the situation in the particular State or community and make sure that adequate child-labor standards are incorporated into law and that provision is made for effective administration.

The community has a continuing responsibility for preventing loss of education and unsuitable employment that not only may cause irreparable injury to youth now but may handicap them as future citizens prepared to maintain security for the children of post-war years. This responsibility extends to all the services that relate to the child in his transition from school to work and that depend on community support for their effectiveness—vocational guidance, employment-certificate issuance, and placement services.

Consideration must be given also to employment and education problems of youth that may arise in a post-war period of restricted employment opportunities. Boys and girls now in school should be given a broad type of education that will enable them to qualify for jobs in such a period. At the end of the war, children who left school prematurely because of war conditions should be encouraged to complete their education, and young persons who cannot find jobs should be offered further education and training and provided with work opportunities—if necessary, under public auspices. The years following the war should see a strengthening of child-labor laws, both federally and in the States that do not now afford adequate protection, and a quickening of community responsibility for seeing that these laws are properly administered for the benefit of youth.

Social Services for Children

In all States the welfare department or some other department or board of the State government has under its jurisdiction institutions for juvenile delinquents and for mentally deficient children. Schools for blind and for deaf children are also under State control, and in many States institutions for dependent children or child-placing activities for the care of these children are conducted by the State welfare department. These institutions and agencies are designed to give care and training to children who are peculiarly in need of the protection of the State, but many of them do not have sufficient financial support to permit good standards of equipment and staff. The rising cost of living and, in many cases, increasing demands for service because of the war have made conditions even more serious than they were in normal times.

State institutions and agencies providing for care, treatment, and training of children should be studied to ascertain whether the service is such that it is of real benefit to the children. Appropriations made available to the responsible department should be sufficient to assure proper care of the State's most needy children. Careful consideration should be given to necessary expenditures for medical care, education, specialized training, and social service. Personnel requirements are of the greatest importance in determining appropriations needed for child-caring activities.

Laws relating to licensing and supervision of institutions and agencies have been enacted for the purpose of safeguarding children who must be cared for away from their own homes. All too often protective laws on the statute books are poorly enforced because of failure to make available a sufficiently large staff of qualified workers to carry out the purposes of the law. State departments have a constructive program of assistance to local public and private institutions and agencies in developing standards essential to the health and welfare of the children under their care.

Increasingly during the past decade State welfare departments have assumed a third function—aid to counties and other local units in planning social services and such financial assistance as will enable the communities to carry out these programs. Public social services for children are inadequate or they are lacking altogether in many local units because the State governments have not made sufficient provision for financial aid and for leadership in promoting these community services.

Planning for the welfare of all children in need of special care and protection involves ascertaining whether the State department responsible for the social welfare of children has sufficient appropriations and enough qualified workers to give adequate service to the chil-

dren who are the State's wards, to exercise its regulatory powers in such a way that children will be safeguarded, and to assist local communities in providing social services for children and sharing the cost of these services.

The need for social services for children in every local community was emphasized by the White House Conference on Children in a Democracy:

> Social services to children whose home conditons or individual difficulties require special attention should be provided in every county or other appropriate area. * * * The local public-welfare department should be able to provide all essential social services to children, either directly or through utilizing the resources of other agencies. Public and private child-welfare agencies should cooperate in a program which will assure the proper service to every child in need. * * * Public child-welfare services should be available to every child in need of such help without regard to legal residence, economic status, race, or any consideration other than the child's need.[2]

Local child-welfare services have been provided in many rural counties and in a number of areas of special need through a program in which the Federal, State, and local units of Government share the cost. In a few States such services have been provided, mainly through State and local funds, on an almost State-wide basis, but in most of the States only a small proportion of counties are equipped with adequate public services for children. Every community should offer case-work services to children in their homes, means for prevention of behavior problems through services available to schools, resources for the care of children who must be provided for away from their own homes and access to treatment and training for physically handicapped children, and constructive treatment of children who are delinquent. Provision of essential social services in every community is one of the most definite and urgent problems of post-war security for children.

State Action Through Legislation

The child-welfare laws of a State reflect the concern of its citizens for the welfare of children. Statutory provisions do not of themselves create beneficial conditions; they define safeguards for those who are in need of special protection, and they give authority for administrative action by public agencies. Legislation which concerns children directly or indirectly should be in harmony with principles of child health, education, and social welfare recognized as essential to the well-being of children. Child-welfare standards cannot be translated into action unless State and local agencies charged with safeguarding health, providing educational opportunities, and affording child care and protection are authorized by law to adopt policies and practices required to achieve these ends, and unless adequate funds are made available to them for carrying out these measures. The authority of State law is required to protect children from neglect or abuse, to safeguard those who are cared for away from their parental homes, to guard children against too early or hazardous employment, and to insure wise treatment of juvenile offenders.

The recommendation adopted by the 1919 Conference on Minimum Standards for Child Welfare (commonly referred to as the second White House Conference) is still applicable to the situation in many States:

> The child-welfare legislation of every State requires careful reconsideration as a whole at reasonable intervals in order that necessary revision and coordination may be made and that new provisions may be incorporated in harmony with the best experience of the day. In States where children's laws have not had careful revision as a whole within recent years a child-welfare committee or commission should be created for this purpose. Laws enacted by the several States should be in line with national ideals and uniform so far as desirable in view of diverse conditions in the several States. Child-welfare legislation should be framed by those who are thoroughly familiar with the conditions and needs of children and with administrative difficulties. It should be drafted by a competent lawyer in such form as to accomplish the end desired by child-welfare experts and at the same time be consistent with existing laws.[3]

Legislative commissions or committees, officially created or working under the auspices of State-wide organizations, have studied child-welfare laws in a number of States during the past few years. In most instances their efforts have been directed toward revision of certain phases of protective laws, most frequently in the field of social welfare. While this has resulted in modernizing the statutes in these particular areas, it has often failed to harmonize these laws with provisions in related fields. It is not always practicable to review the whole range of legislation relating to children or to "codify" all laws which have a bearing upon child welfare, but it is important that whatever phase of legislation is dealt with shall be studied in relation to other laws which may have a bearing upon the same subject. For example, laws designed for the protection of children cared for away from their own homes should be approached from the health as well as the social welfare point of view; persons drafting child-labor laws should take into account provisions of laws relating to schooling.

There is growing recognition of the desirability of providing for continuous review of

[2] Children in a Democracy. General Report, p. 64.

[3] Minimum Standards for Child Welfare Adopted by the Washington and Regional Conferences on Child Welfare, 1919. Children's Bureau Publication 62. Washington 1920.

laws in the fields of health, education, and social welfare by an official body representative of these interests in order that statutory provisions may be brought into harmony with recognized standards of care and protection and with administrative needs. Voluntary organizations, such as legislative committees of State conferences on social welfare, and health and education organizations, may perform a most useful function by keeping in touch with the operation of protective legislation and the need for revising existing laws so as to make them more effective. The active concern of voluntary organizations as well as official bodies is needed especially in relation to appropriations made available by State legislatures for administration of State departments, support of public institutions and agencies, and assistance to local public-health, education, and social-welfare departments.

Constant vigilance is needed to keep pace with changing conditions which may necessitate new controls. Legislation relating to wartime emergencies is a case in point.[4] Not only must legal provision be made for dealing with conditions that require special safeguards but such emergency legislation must be reviewed when the special need is over, so that its provisions will not stand in the way of progress toward a unified body of laws conforming to the standards set for the care and protection of children in the State.

Child-welfare legislation should be studied from the point of view of the social purposes to be attained through the specific proposals—why certain regulations and types of provision are needed and through what supervisory or administrative processes they may be made effective. Certain basic principles of legislation are applicable in all States, but the development of a unified body of child-welfare laws in any State must take into account the need for specific types of protection and the extent to which laws now on the statute books afford the necessary safeguards. Legal definition of the responsibilities of State and local government agencies and the appropriations made available to them for carrying on these duties determine the character of the services which can be provided by these agencies. State laws relating to the care and protection of children should be developed through a continuing process of keeping abreast of changing social and industrial conditions and harmonizing statutory provisions with evolving standards of child care and protection.

[4] *See* Legislation for the Protection of Children in Wartime—Suggestions Submitted by the Children's Bureau Commission on Children in Wartime. Children's Bureau, Washington, January 1943.

War-Area Child-Care Bill

On May 24, 1943, Senator Thomas of Utah introduced Senate Bill 1130, providing for care of children of women employed in war areas of the United States. The bill was referred to the Senate Committee on Education and Labor.

At the committee hearings held on June 8, Charles P. Taft, Director, Office of Community War Services, presented the basic outlines of the bill, which would provide for $20,000,000 to be appropriated annually as grants to States for day care and extended school services for children of working mothers. The program would be administered by the Children's Bureau and the United States Office of Education, coordinated by the Office of Community War Services of the Federal Security Agency.

Dr. Martha M. Eliot, Associate Chief of the Children's Bureau, in her statement before the committee, pointed out that the aspects of the program assigned in this bill to the Children's Bureau and State welfare departments, i. e., community-wide information and advisory service, foster-family care, day-care centers, and health services appropriate to these programs, are in the main not being developed through the use of Federal funds by any other Federal agency. She pointed out that the already existing structure and experience of Federal and State agencies would enable them promptly and efficiently to "convert peacetime machinery for community care of children of working mothers to a wartime basis."

The bill was passed by the Senate July 1 and thereupon was referred to the House of Representatives Committee on Education.

State Committees on Children in Wartime

Committees on Children in Wartime organized under the State defense council and having broad programs of child welfare have now been appointed in 27 States and the District of Columbia. In addition to the committees listed in *The Child* for March 1943 (p. 138) the Office of Civilian Defense reports that children's committees in the following States have adopted a broad program for children in wartime:

Connecticut	South Dakota
Massachusetts	Washington
North Dakota	West Virginia
Wyoming	

BOOK NOTES

Social Services

In Quest of Foster Parents; a point of view on home finding, by Dorothy Hutchinson. Columbia University Press, New York, 1943. 145 pp. $1.75.

From her wide experience in the field Miss Hutchinson has given a practical discussion of the changing concept of present-day home finding. Her interpretation of procedures and practices and the case stories she has selected add much to the general usefulness of the publication.

Miss Hutchinson discusses the importance of understanding the incentive of the applicant and the use of this knowledge in the selection and placement of the child. The case-work processes in home finding are dealt with in the light of realities and of human relationships. Her suggestions for individualizing the refusal, when for one reason or another the foster home does not meet the particular need of the agency, transforms the "disagreeable chore" of refusing foster parents into a case-work challenge.

The chapter on Home Finding in Wartime is especially timely. A comprehensive bibliography supplements the author's observations and increases the usefulness of the publication to students and case workers in the field of child placement.

Social Work Year Book, 1943. Russell H. Kurtz, editor. Seventh issue. Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East Twenty-second Street, New York. 764 pp. $3.25.

Each of the seven editions of the Social Work Year Book has had improvements in arrangement of subject matter. In the 1943 issue separate articles on adoption, care of dependent and neglected children, child labor, day care for children, and parent education and child development describe activities previously discussed under other titles.

For this 1943 edition the editor and his advisory committee had to decide whether the Social Work Year Book was to be changed into a special wartime volume or was to keep the form developed in its six previous editions. The decision was to keep to the traditional pattern because social problems of wartime are not, in general, new. They are merely intensifications of the social workers' day-by-day duties in peacetime, calling for pointing up certain services and extending peacetime organization as a whole. Consequently, the 1942 cross-section view of organization and practice in the various fields of social work shows wartime activities in their true perspective, making possible an estimate of trends leading into the post-war period.

The topical articles on wartime services contain much useful information for workers in children's agencies. For example, Service Men, in the section on provision for dependents, gives in detail allowances provided under the Servicemen's Dependents Allowance Act of 1942 for specified dependents of men in lower grades of the armed forces.

The extensive and exceedingly useful directory sections of previous editions are continued.

General Child Welfare

The Child and The Law in Pennsylvania, by Lillian L. Straus and Edwin P. Rome. Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania (311 South Juniper Street, Philadelphia), 1943. 292 pp. $2.25.

This book is designed to set forth the laws of Pennsylvania relating to children, in a form practical for the legal profession and comprehensible to the lay reader. Subjects dealt with are the relations of parent and child; child welfare, health, and education; civil and criminal rights and liabilities of minors. Statutes and parts of statutes of particular interest to lay groups and recent enactments frequently invoked are quoted in full; others are summarized. Some cases of particular or unusual interest or giving rise to representative judicial decisions are cited. Actual practice in the courts or procedure of administrative bodies is occasionally described. The incorporation in the text of references to statutes and cases usually relegated to footnotes causes some interruption to the continuity of thought.

Games for Children. National Recreation Association, 315 Fourth Ave., New York, 1943. 62 pp. 50 cents.

Games for children of all ages, from early childhood to adolescence, are given in this booklet, which was prepared as a practical guide for recreation leaders, club workers, or parents. The material is grouped under topics such as singing games, tag games, relays, ball games, miscellaneous active games, quiet games, and nature games.

Community Life in a Democracy, edited by Florence C. Bingham. National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Chicago, 1942. 246 pp.

This is the third of a series of publications issued by the National Congress of Parents and Teachers dealing with the home, the school, and the community. It is based on the 1940 White House Conference on Children in a Democracy, in which the Congress actively participated.

The publication is composed of analyses of present-day conditions as observed by some 20 civic, religious, welfare, and educational leaders. The subject matter as well as the "study guide" which accompanies it offers a useful manual for practical service. Although intended primarily for the use of parent-teacher groups the thought-provoking statements presented should prove stimulating to other community groups interested in the development of constructive plans for the preservation of the American way of life.

BOOK NOTES

YOUR FIRST BABY, by Louise Cripps Glemser. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York, 1943. 90 pp. $1.

This brief book on modern methods of infant care and feeding demonstrates something all workers dealing with parents would like to put across: that the baby will be much better off if, instead of worrying, the child's parents adopt a comfortable attitude of belief in their ability to learn and carry out the necessary techniques without heavy-handed solemnity. Sound principles are clothed in easy-going, simple language, and pointed up by full-page photographs illustrating the various steps in baby care. A section on records of the child's development is included.

CHILDREN CAN HELP THEMSELVES, by Marion Olive Lerrigo, Ph. D. Macmillan Co., New York, 1943. 219 pp. $2.25.

In a narrative outlining the development of a fictional child, David, the author translates into readable form rather exhaustive research findings on the accomplishments and skills to be expected at various ages from 1 month to 11 years, with suggestions throughout as to how parents may make use of this knowledge. David's growth in health habits, the development of his ability to get along with other children, his parents' wise attempts to look with detachment at some of the usually disturbing "passing phases" of behavior are described in a way that gives concrete assurance to parents. That children can and do differ in their development while being normal in every way is indicated by reference to David's playmates of the same age.

The book gives an accurate interpretation of the findings in the many sources mentioned. Easy use of the book would have been furthered by an index.

EDUCATION OF THE YOUNG CHILD; a nursery-school manual, by Catherine Landreth. John Wiley & Sons, New York, 1942. 279 pp. $2.50.

The director of the nursery school at the University of California Institute of Child Welfare has made this book just what its title indicates—a practical help for the nursery-school worker. The principles of preschool education cannot be reduced to a formula, but copious examples of how the expert teacher makes use of every kind of situation in the nursery school to interpret these principles and let them function should be of great aid to students of the art of child guidance.

Intended for use in the training of nursery-school teachers, the manual might well be utilized now in courses for volunteer workers in child-care centers. Girls and women who have had no formal training in child development should find this statement of educational objectives and presentation of flexible methods of meeting them, well worth attention.

Working assignments, bibliography, and record forms are included, as well as a few notes on pertinent research. There is a brief history of the nursery-school movement in chapter 1, which, however, omits mention of the pioneer work of Dr. Helen E. Woolley at Merrill-Palmer School.

PSYCHOLOGIC CARE DURING INFANCY AND CHILDHOOD, by Ruth Morris Bakwin, M. D., and Harry Bakwin, M. D. D. Appleton-Century Co, New York. 1942. 317 pp. $3.50.

This book is designed to offer orientation in the intellectual and emotional development of infants and children to the pediatrician and general medical practitioner. The book should be particularly useful to medical students in connection with the study of pediatrics. It should likewise be helpful to the student and graduate nurse. A bibliography is given at the end of each chapter for the use of those interested in further study. In 34 chapters, covering 298 pages, the authors have outlined some basic principles of the child's growth emotionally, intellectually, and socially. Techniques of examination, the common behavior disturbances, and educational difficulties are discussed and methods of treatment suggested.

THE NEUROMUSCULAR MATURATION OF THE HUMAN INFANT, by Myrtle B. McGraw. Columbia University Press, New York, 1943. 140 pp. $2.

A series of studies begun more than a decade ago under the aegis of the late Dr. Frederick Tilney are summed up in this volume.

In an endeavor to correlate the behavior development of the growing infant with cortical function, the author carried out behavior studies concerned primarily with sequential changes in specific functions. The functions examined were, essentially, those motor activities common to the infant and young child. The primary aim was to depict, in a general way, the characteristics which reflect participation of the cerebral cortex in each function.

Although it was not possible to identify the functioning of specific cortical areas, the methods employed in the study made it possible to detect certain characteristics of behavior which, in each activity, manifest a deliberate or voluntary quality.

In the final chapter the author demonstrates the practical application to which the knowledge gained from the study can be put. The process of growth as reflected in the early motor development of the baby provides helpful and practical suggestions for the improvement of teaching methods.

C. A. C., M. D.

CONVULSIVE SEIZURES: HOW TO DEAL WITH THEM, by Tracy J. Putnam, M. D. J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, 1943. 168 pp. $2.

Epilepsy creates anxiety and confusion for patient and relatives, teachers, and social workers. Every patient so afflicted needs competent medical supervision and judicious interpretation regarding his condition. Dr. Putnam has anticipated in this authoritative nontechnical book questions which might be raised or should be raised by those concerned with convulsive seizures. Parents, social workers, and teachers will find the book enlightening and reassuring.

Dedication of New Children's Hospital in Mexico City

By A. L. Van Horn, M. D.

Assistant Director for Crippled Children, Division of Health Services, U. S. Children's Bureau

It was my privilege to serve as representative of the Chief of the Children's Bureau at the dedication of the Hospital Infantil in Mexico City on May 29, 1943.

This hospital is the first children's hospital built by the Government of Mexico and is the second hospital to be completed in the new medical center now under construction. The building is of concrete construction, is modernistic in style of architecture, and has 6 floors. It has a capacity of 550 beds for children of all ages from newborn infants up to 14 years of age.

Facilities and services of the hospital include an out-patient clinic, with adjoining laboratories for special diagnostic services, in-patient facilities for pediatrics, orthopedic surgery, general surgery, otolaryngology, ophthalmology, neurology, and dermatology services, as well as special provisions for physiotherapy, occupational therapy, educational services, and social services. One unit has been specially designed for the care of premature infants. There are also a breast-milk station and a well-equipped milk laboratory.

The department of nutrition, which is responsible for the preparation of food for child patients and employees, is staffed by persons trained in dietetics and is furnished with mechanical refrigerators and other modern equipment.

Experienced educational-therapy workers will teach invalid or crippled children occupations that they will be able to continue after leaving the hospital, instruct them in their school subjects so that they need not fall behind, and help them in other ways to spend the time in the hospital usefully and pleasantly.

The department of social services is responsible for studying the economic and social conditions of the families of the sick children in order to help them in any way possible and to determine how much of the cost of the child's care they should be asked to pay. The charges will be moderate, and treatment will be free for those whose families are unable to pay.

Hospital Infantil will be used as a teaching hospital for the medical school of the National University and has lecture rooms, classrooms, and student laboratories located in the building.

The hospital will be under the immediate direction of Dr. Federico Gómez, a prominent pediatrician of Mexico City, who has been interested for many years in the development and construction of a children's hospital in that city. There is a full-time resident staff of physicians, many of whom have had recent training in pediatrics in the United States. A group of graduate nurses from Mexico who have also received training in pediatric nursing in the United States will serve as supervisors in various units of the new hospital. There is also a full-time staff of roentgenologists, pathologists, bacteriologists, physical therapists, and so forth.

Dr. Juan Farill, an orthopedic surgeon of Mexico who is well known in the United States, has been designated chief of the orthopedic service in Hospital Infantil.

A descriptive leaflet, Hospital Infantil de México, with photographs of the hospital and its various departments, has been issued by the Secretaria de la Asistencia Pública, Mexico (1943. 31 pp.).

Spanish Edition of The Child

The Instituto Panamericano de Bibliografia y Documentacion, Mexico, Dr. Miquel Ferrer, Director, has taken the initiative in arranging for the publication of a Spanish edition of *The Child*. During an initial period of 4 months the Children's Bureau will have at its disposal, through the assistance of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, a limited number of free copies of the Spanish edition.

After the trial period all subscriptions will be on a paid basis, at the rate of 50 cents a year. Subscriptions should be sent to the Instituto Panamericano de Bibliografia y Documentacion, Apartado Postal 8626, Mexico, D. F.

• EVENTS OF CURRENT INTEREST •

TELL US WHAT YOUR COMMUNITY IS DOING

The Children's Bureau plans to publish in *The Child* during the last 6 months of 1943 several short, graphic accounts of local activities illustrating the six-point program outlined in Community Action for Children in Wartime (Children's Bureau Publication 295). Contributions are invited. The six-point program calls for:

1. A well-baby clinic in every community.
2. Care for children of employed mothers.
3. School lunches in every school.
4. Schooling for every child.
5. Play and recreation programs in every community.
6. Employment safeguards for every boy and girl.

Stories should not exceed 800 words and may describe any one of these programs or any combination of them, as already existing in a community or as newly established. If photographs illustrating the program are available they should be submitted with the article. Send two typewritten copies of the manuscript if possible.

Give specific details—on ways in which community interest was stimulated, how the program was set up and financed, what groups helped, what features do most to make it a success. Don't think you cannot send in a story because the program is not county-wide; we want to know what *your own neighborhood* is doing.

Contributions received by the first of each month will be considered for publication in *The Child* for the following month. Reprints up to 100 copies will be available without charge to the author of an article accepted for publication. Address contributions to Editor, *The Child*, Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

Appointment of Miss Shepperson

Gay Shepperson was recently appointed as Assistant to the Chief of the Children's Bureau. Until recently she was Deputy Director of the Board of Public Welfare of the District of Columbia. Formerly she was the Director of the Work Projects Administration for Georgia.

Miss Shepperson will also be Director of the Social Service Division, assisted by Elsa Castendyck in charge of research, and Mildred Arnold in charge of child-welfare field staff.

CONFERENCE CALENDAR

Sept. 13–17. American Hospital Association, Buffalo. Permanent headquarters: 18 East Division Street, Chicago.

Oct. 5–7. National Safety Council, Thirty-second national safety congress and exposition, Chicago. Permanent headquarters: 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago.

Oct. 12–14. American Public Health Association. Three-day wartime public-health conference, New York. Permanent headquarters: 1790 Broadway, New York.

Nov. 14–20. Children's Book Week. Twenty-fifth annual celebration. Theme: Build the future with books. Headquarters: 62 West Forty-fifth Street, New York.

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The Children's Bureau does not necessarily assume responsibility for the statements or opinions of contributors not connected with the Bureau.

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UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY

CHILDREN'S BUREAU
KATHARINE F. LENROOT, CHIEF

WE ARE fighting again for human freedom and especially for the future of our children in a free world. Children must be safeguarded—and they can be safeguarded—in the midst of this total war so that they can live and share in that future.—*A Children's Charter in Wartime.*

A Labor-Day Message on Youth in a World at War

FROM KATHARINE F. LENROOT

Chief, U. S. Children's Bureau

Teen-age youth can rightfully take an important part in the celebration of Labor Day, 1943. Literally millions of boys and girls under 18 years of age have been giving yeoman service during the summer months in industry and trade and on farms. Now approaches the end of the summer working season and the opening of the new school term. At such a turning point it is important for us as a Nation to take stock of the place of our children in the working world and in the schools.

If we ask ourselves, "What do our children mean to us?" we must answer, "They are our real wealth—wealth that must not be wasted. If it is used carelessly, we shall be left an impoverished people." In the face even of growing labor needs, we must recognize that our children are not the major labor resource that is left untapped. Many men and women in minority groups and women not in the labor market in normal times are still available. But children are the labor resource most easily recruited, willing and eager to harness their youthful and overflowing energy to the wheels of industry.

With care, we can use the devotion and skills and intelligence of our children without harm. But this cannot be left to chance. We cannot leave it to children to decide what is the best way for them to share in the war. They must be helped to choose, and to choose wisely.

For a very large proportion of the children who have taken summer jobs, this choice should be a return to school. The War Manpower Commission has pointed out the road to take:

> The first responsibility and obligation of youth under 18 even in wartime is to take full advantage of their educational opportunities in order to prepare themselves for war and post-war services and for the duties of citizenship.

But to accomplish this, we men and women must ourselves realize and make vivid to our children the close relation of school to the total war job. Of themselves, these young people, eager to have a responsible part in winning the war, cannot project into the future the value of their schooling, or see how attendance at school will really help us attain the kind of peace we all are fighting for.

We know the value of training and study. We know how much modern wars depend on scientific knowledge. We know how much a lasting peace will depend upon intelligent and trained minds. We know how much a successful nation owes to the sound bodies and sound minds of its citizens. We are a nation of believers that our children should be wiser, abler, and more successful people than we are. We know that our schools will help them to become so. We must spell this out for them, make schools not an escape or a shelter from the war period we live in, but an essential part of it.

Return to school need not mean for all these boys and girls entire abandonment of the working world. The War Manpower Commission has again struck the keynote:

> In most cases youth under 18 can best contribute to the war program by continuing in school, and when their services are required, accepting vacation and part-time employment.

Here, when young people divide their energy between school and work, another responsibility falls upon us. We must see that they work in the right jobs and for reasonable hours.

We know some jobs are hazardous for them. We know some jobs have health risks for them. We know boys and girls need time for sleep, for play, for relaxation. We know what hours are left to spend either at work, at school, or at a combination of both. We must convert this knowledge into action and see that our school youth who are also workers are properly safeguarded.

The boys and girls of today are the leaders of the very near tomorrow. They now form an undue proportion of the new recruits to the labor market, an alarming proportion in view of the future need of the Nation for men and women with trained minds and sound bodies. In meeting needs for the present contribution of youth to the labor force we cannot afford to curtail their further training for technical services in war and reconstruction and their education for citizenship in the post-war world.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

Maternity Policies In Industry

By Charlotte Silverman, M. D.

Division of Research in Child Development, U. S. Children's Bureau

Note.—As was reported in the Child, October 1942, the Children's Bureau and the Women's Bureau in July of last year issued a statement of Standards for Maternity Care and Employment of Mothers in Industry. (4 pp., processed.) These standards point out that "a woman who is expecting a child should give first consideration to her own health and to plans for safeguarding the health and care of the child." For the pregnant woman who must work they recommend: Facilities for adequate prenatal care; no work between midnight and 6 a. m.; no working hours longer than 8 a day and 48 a week; two rest periods in each shift; transfer from any hazardous job; and at least 6 weeks' leave before physician expects delivery, with more leave upon physician's recommendation. As to the time after delivery, the standards point out that the infant needs the mother's care, especially in the first year, but if the mother must return to work she should have at least 2 months' leave after delivery and more leave upon the physician's recommendation. The provisions made for maternity care and maternity leave, according to the standards, should not jeopardize the woman's job nor her seniority privileges.

As an increasing number of women enter industry, especially married women, the problem of protecting the health of such workers before and after childbirth is becoming more and more urgent. In general, physicians agree that work of itself is not harmful to a pregnant woman, but that if a woman finds it necessary to be employed during pregnancy she should work only in some occupation that is within her physical strength and does not involve hazards; that she should have opportunity for adequate prenatal care; and that she should be given sufficient time off before delivery to prevent undue strain in the latter part of pregnancy and to permit her to be in a rested state at the time of delivery. They agree that if the mother, after delivery, finds it necessary to return to work she should have at least sufficient time off to regain her strength and to return to normal.

As a step in finding out what are the policies in industrial establishments concerning maternity among employees, the Children's Bureau, in December 1942 and January 1943, made a study of the policies in 70 industrial plants employing a total of about 250,000 women, in 11 States in various sections of the country.[1] Most of these plants are in war production centers, and nearly all the products are for the use of the armed forces. The industries represented included among others the aircraft, automotive, electrical, ordnance, shipbuilding, and textile industries. All the establishments were employing a large number of women at the time of the study; some had been employing women for many years; others had only recently been employing them.

Interviews were generally held with medical directors, industrial-relations or personnel directors, and women's counselors; occasionally with nurses and safety engineers. Only rarely was it possible to interview employees. In a number of plants a factory tour was made.

Extent of the Problem

It was difficult to get information on the number of cases of pregnancy among the workers. Some plant representatives were able to supply this information from records; some made esti-

[1] Alabama, California, Connecticut, Illinois, Oregon, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Washington.

mates. In the plants where the records seemed most dependable the number of cases of pregnancy reported per month per thousand women workers ranged from 3 to 6. (For the plants where the number of cases was merely estimated the figures were much lower.)

These figures probably do not indicate real differences in the incidence of pregnancy in the various plants; rather, they reflect different plant conditions that affect the completeness of reporting.

A factor that would influence actual differences between plants is the percentage of married women. Data on this subject, however, were not kept by any of the plants. Some plants offered estimates, and in nearly all of them approximately 50 percent of the women employees were married.

Obviously, the ages of the women also would influence the number of pregnancies. Nearly all the women in these plants were in the 18- to 44-year age group, and no differences could be found among the plants.

Apparently the chief factor that brought about incompleteness of reporting was the requirement by some firms that women leave their jobs as soon as their pregnancy is known. In such a plant a woman who needs to work is likely to conceal her pregnancy from the management as long as possible and, when she feels that she can no longer conceal it, she is likely to leave without reporting her pregnancy, giving some other reason for leaving. All such cases, of course, would be unrecorded, and the number of pregnancies recorded in such a plant would be much smaller than the true number.

The employers that leave the decision regarding termination of employment entirely in the hands of the employee herself probably would not have any reason for recording information on pregnancies and would therefore have no records, or very incomplete ones. These employers are of two types: (1) Those who have long employed women and have an easygoing policy with regard to pregnancy in their employees and (2) those who have employed women a very short time and have not yet discovered that pregnancy is a problem that may affect the management.

Some plants that have an industrial-insurance plan including maternity leave keep careful records of pregnancies among women who are subscribers to the plan, but not among other women.

How Some Employers Were Dealing With the Problem

Only a few of the establishments studied had formulated no policy regarding maternity among the employees. As was mentioned in connection with the records of pregnancies, some of these plants had employed women for many years and let the problem take care of itself, and others had employed women so short a time that they had not yet learned that this problem might affect the management.

Among the establishments that had formulated policies there was considerable variation with regard to both the policy stipulations and the rigidity or flexibility with which they were carried out.

Giving Up Employment During Pregnancy.[2]

All the plants that had formulated any policy with regard to maternity either discharged pregnant women or required them to take leave of absence. (An employee given leave of absence retains some privileges regarding reinstatement and seniority. These privileges vary with different companies.) In many plants certain months of pregnancy were set as the time for leaving work; in a few plants the advice of a physician set the time for the woman's leaving, but in most of them the women had to leave as soon as pregnancy was known.

Repeated inquiries were made of medical directors and other plant representatives in an effort to find out why the women were required to leave their jobs as soon as they were known to be pregnant. In almost every plant the reason given first was the protection of the health of the prospective mother and her child, or the diminished efficiency of an employee who is pregnant. Later, however, the reason was admitted to be the fear of "risk" in having pregnant women employed at the plant; that is, of the possibility of a miscarriage that the employee might allege was the result of her occupation.

All the medical directors that were interviewed agreed that it is in the first 3 months of pregnancy that the danger of miscarriage is greatest and that practically all the pregnant women remained at work during this period, as it is unusual for pregnancy to be reported so early.

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[2] The prenatal-leave requirements of the States in which the plants were located were as follows: In Massachusetts, where many textile mills allow women to work in the late months of pregnancy, the law prohibits the employment of women within 2 weeks before childbirth; this law apparently does not take into account the difficulty of predicting the time of a delivery within 2 weeks. In Connecticut it is unlawful to employ a woman within 4 weeks before childbirth. In Washington, by an order of the State industrial-welfare committee, the employment of women within 4 months before childbirth is prohibited. From the point of view of obstetricians the periods of absence before confinement required by Massachusetts and Connecticut are too short to provide for sufficient rest for women industrial workers. On the other hand, not all such workers need so long a period of absence as is mandatory in Washington.

Only two other States have set restricted periods for employment before childbirth—Vermont, 2 weeks; Missouri, 3 weeks.

The medical directors also agreed that if a woman wanted or needed to work she would withhold information about her pregnancy as long as possible and that the company would still have the problem of women's working during this period, but would not know about it. They agreed, too, that the second 3 months is comparatively the safest period of pregnancy, and that it is somewhat inconsistent to dismiss a woman during that time, after she had worked through the most hazardous stage.

An effort was made at every plant to find out how many miscarriages had taken place that had been alleged to be due to work at the plant, and only one case was reported. Inquiry at the State industrial-accident commission in one of the States where the study was made brought the reply that the commission rarely encountered such a claim—on the average there were two a year.

In this connection the "esthetic and moral" question also arises. In many plants it was stated that it was "not nice" for obviously pregnant women to be working in a factory and that such employment had a bad effect on the male employees, who made it a subject of frequent comment and were distracted from their work. In a large textile mill in New England, on the other hand, where obviously pregnant women have been employed for years, it was said to have caused no comment or distraction.

The type of work that a firm is engaged in, particularly in industries that have but recently begun to employ women, is another factor in the formulation of maternity-leave policies. In industries such as shipbuilding and tank building, where the work is considered heavy, it is felt strongly that women should not be allowed to work when they are pregnant. In many instances the women in these heavy industries do not do heavy work, but the sentiment nevertheless prevails.

Cases of pregnancy come to the attention of the management by two means: They are reported by the individuals concerned, or they are discovered and reported indirectly. In companies where the maternity policy is penalizing in the sense that pregnant women have to quit work, direct reporting is very incomplete, particularly in the early stages of pregnancy. Indirect reporting, or discovery, takes place through rumors, policing by matrons, suspicious symptoms brought to the attention of the medical department, and so forth.

A policy of dismissing women as early as, for example, the second month of pregnancy is totally unrealistic and is difficult to carry out. For one thing, at that early date many women are not certain of being pregnant. For another, a woman can conceal her pregnancy for a long time after that and will not hesitate to do so if she wants to work, or needs to, and knows that she will have to give up working if she reveals it. Although it was not possible to obtain figures on induced abortions, there is reason to believe that fear of dismissal might prove a likely motivating factor.

Concealment of pregnancy makes it impossible for management and medical departments to provide supervision for these women, who may continue at hazardous jobs without anyone's knowing it. They do not consult the plant physician, nor can there be any cooperation between their family physicians and the industrial medical departments. The women may continue to work when there are definite medical indications for stopping work.

Transfer to More Suitable Work.

Several firms that had the policy of discharging or laying off pregnant women at the fourth to the eighth month stated that they would transfer women to suitable jobs if their original work was hazardous. (Hazardous work for pregnant women includes heavy lifting, constant bending or stretching, constant standing, exposure to toxic substances, and so forth.)

In several plants the difficulty of finding jobs to which pregnant women could be transferred was mentioned. At a shipyard where this difficulty was brought up, an effort was made to list all the light jobs that might serve such a purpose, and the women's counselors were surprised at the number of them that they had never considered.

Time Off for Prenatal Care.

No plant, with the exception of one textile mill, allowed pregnant women any time off to go to prenatal clinics. This mill gave women time off on Saturdays for attendance at the clinic. No plant allowed any time off for obtaining prenatal care from any other source.

In most of the crowded industrial areas it was difficult to get prenatal care, as the medical facilities were extremely overtaxed and were inadequate to meet the needs of the community.

Prenatal Care at Industrial Plant.

As a rule the plant representatives interviewed believed that it was not within the province of an industrial medical department to give prenatal care. In fact, it was felt that this would encroach upon private practice and that it should be avoided. The usual procedure, when a woman appeared at the medical department to report her pregnancy, was to advise her to go to her own physician for care and follow-up. In a few plants an initial pre-

natal examination was given, consisting of taking the weight and blood pressure and, occasionally, doing a urinalysis. In some plants, which allowed women to work for a specified time during pregnancy, the prospective mothers would be asked to report on their general condition every few weeks. One plant for several years has referred pregnant women to the local health department.

One large aircraft plant expected to go beyond this. The medical department gave "reasonable first aid," in addition to caring for accident cases and emergencies. The plant was in the process of expanding its medical service, however, and was planning to have a 12- to 15-bed hospital in the plant. If the supply of local physicians is further depleted, and if the remaining ones request the plant to provide more medical treatment, the company is prepared to do so. It is expected that the plant physician will give prenatal care if a woman worker does not have a physician of her own.

Policy Regarding Unmarried Pregnant Women.

In all the establishments it was stated that the policy toward unmarried pregnant women was not different from that toward married ones. One large factory in the automotive industry, which has always employed women, made an effort to place these girls in homes for unmarried mothers after they were laid off from work. If they returned to work they were placed in different departments.

Postnatal Leave of Absence.[3]

Most of the establishments that did not actually discharge employees on account of pregnancy required that those who were required to take leave of absence remain away from employment for a specified period. Most of the plants set 6 weeks or 2 months as the required postnatal leave; one set it at 4 weeks, one at 4 months, and one at 6 months. Eleven required the amount of postnatal leave to be decided by a physician (the plant physician or the woman's own physician).

Extent of Return to Work After Delivery.

It was very difficult to find out how many women returned to work after childbirth. Most firms did not keep records of this type. Companies that had been employing women for many years, although they did not keep records of the number of returns, frequently were able to offer estimates. The textile mills had a very high percentage of returns. Some electrical plants also had a high percentage.

Reinstatement and Seniority.

Among the establishments that had high percentages of returns to work the question of reinstatement and seniority was probably a factor in motivating an early return. In several of these plants reinstatement and seniority privileges were effective for only 2 to 3 months after childbirth. If the period in which these privileges were effective were lengthened, women might be inclined to take longer postnatal leave.

One of the plants visited, a large industrial firm that has employed women for many years, has a policy that demonstrates what can be done successfully with regard to the maternity problem in industry. This firm allows pregnant women to work through the fifth month, and it is anticipated that this working period will be lengthened. Employees are urged to report their pregnancies as early as possible, so that health instructions can be given and so that suitable job arrangements can be made.

At this plant a woman came to the office of the counselor of women to report her 2 months' pregnancy and to inquire whether or not her work was suitable. The counselor, after getting the advice of the plant physician, told her that the work was not suitable, as it involved constant use of a foot pedal, and arranged a transfer to a noninjurious job.

In this plant pregnant women are advised to go to their own physicians for prenatal care, or to the local health department. Cooperation is maintained between the plant medical department and outside physicians. In the community in which this plant is located, free mother-counseling classes are held under the auspices of a private educational fund. The plant maintains the closest cooperation with the directors of these classes and urges all its pregnant employees to attend; most of them apparently do.

Conclusions

A sound industrial maternity policy involves:

1. Avoidance of penalizing regulations, so that women will be encouraged to report their pregnancies as early as possible. Concealment of pregnancy because of fear of being required to give up employment may have serious consequences.

2. A health evaluation of every case. Such findings, and not pregnancy itself, should form the basis for any decision regarding the continued employment of a woman who becomes pregnant.

[3] Among the 11 States in which the study was made, only 3, Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Washington, have any State requirements regarding postnatal leave. Connecticut requires 4 weeks, Massachusetts the same, and Washington 6 weeks. (Three other States, New York, Vermont, and Missouri, have legal requirements—New York and Vermont require 4 weeks, and Missouri 3 weeks.)

3. A job evaluation of every case and, if necessary, transfer to suitable, nonhazardous work. The health of the expectant mother can be protected and her usefulness as a worker continued if she is placed in a suitable job.

4. Periodic reports on physical condition. Such continuing health appraisal is a simple procedure and offers reassurance to employee and employer.

5. Reasonable and protective minimum prenatal- and postnatal-leave periods.

6. Job protection for a reasonable period of time. This would assist in the adequate recovery of the mother, would make it possible for her to spend a longer period of time at home with her infant, and would make for a healthier employee when she does return to work.

7. Cooperation among plant physicians, private practitioners, and public-health departments. Industrial maternity problems are part of community maternity problems and deserve the combined interest of all persons and agencies concerned.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

DAY-CARE PROGRAM HALTED

When Congress recessed on July 8, the War-Area Child-Care bill (S. 1130), which passed the Senate on June 30, was still in the Committee on Education of the House of Representatives. Congress increased the funds available for community facilities under the Lanham Act, with the proviso that funds under this act can not be used for day-care or extended school services for children of mothers employed in war areas, in the event that the War-Area Child-Care bill becomes law.

SAFEGUARDING THE HEALTH OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN

United Nations Conference on Food and Agriculture

What It Means to the World's Children

By Katherine Bain, M. D.

Director of Division of Research in Child Development, U. S. Children's Bureau[1]

For the people of the world this first "United Nations Conference" should have special significance, for its deliberations were centered not about administrative machinery and political or territorial matters, but about the needs of people and how they can be met. And in all the deliberations the special needs of children were given consideration.

This was not a medical conference dealing with deficiency diseases, nor a nutrition conference on consumption levels, nor an agricultural conference on increased production, nor an economic conference on methods of distribution. This was a conference composed of persons in all these fields, and many others, who could contribute to a plan for a better-fed post-war world. The delegates and their advisers included—besides statesmen—physicians, nutritionists, agriculturists, and economists, as well as public-health specialists, biologists, and representatives of many other fields. In addition, to serve the entire conference, the United States Government provided a Technical Secretariat composed of specialists from Government agencies. Much of the success of the conference can be re-

[1] Dr. Bain was a member of the Technical Secretariat of the Conference and served as assistant secretary of the committee that dealt with consumption levels and requirements.

lated to this broad coverage of interests. An additional contributory factor to the successful outcome was the ideal setting, for all the delegates lived and worked together in a community so compact that they had ample opportunity to know one another, and so isolated that outside distractions were nonexistent.

Certain outstanding impressions were gained as the conference progressed. It was a hard-working conference. Meetings began on time, with delegates present and ready to go to work. It was a cooperative conference. Everywhere was evidence of a desire on the part of all the delegates from all the countries to give rather than to get, to forego their local interests in behalf of world interests. And it was a bold conference. The Final Act of the Conference, signed by the chairman of the delegation from each of the participating countries, is a document which recognizes the world problem of malnutrition and its social and economic causes and proposes practical ways of attacking the problem on a united front. Both immediate steps and a long-range plan are outlined. Though all the measures which will ultimately be needed to effect the desired goal were not—nor could they be—enumerated in the short space of 3 weeks, the goal was set and the principle of expanding world economy accepted.

For the children of the world this conference has special significance. In reports on conditions in the countries of the United Nations group, there was ample evidence of malnutrition among children and the relation between malnutrition and infant, maternal, and childhood mortality. There was also, in the reports and in the speeches of the delegates, evidence of the recognition of the obligation of governments to meet the special needs of "vulnerable groups," such as pregnant and nursing women, infants, preschool and school children, and adolescents. One of the 14 final recommendations of the conference states "that the several governments and authorities here represented undertake positive measures for the improvement of the diets of the vulnerable groups."

From the standpoint of future building, one of the most valuable of the principles accepted was that relating to dietary standards. In a conference made up of delegates representing 80 percent of the population of the world, it was inevitable that marked contrasts in levels of consumption and adequacy of diets should be apparent. Yet out of the discussion emerged acceptance of the principle that standards should be based on scientific evidence of need, not on availability of supplies—in other words, that a baby in China or India has the same fundamental needs as a baby in England or the United States. A clear distinction was made between "standards" and the more immediate "goals" which must be based on the practical possibilities of improving the food supply. The acceptance of the scientific basis for determining food needs in terms of nutrients is a necessary step in the estimation of production goals and distribution measures. It is also a reaffirmation of the democratic principle for which the United Nations are fighting, and constitutes a bond between the little nations and the big nations.

Among the delegates there was a strong feeling that this was the first of the "peace conferences." If the atmosphere which prevailed at Hot Springs can be duplicated in future conferences and if the policies outlined become national as well as international policy, freedom from want can become an assured goal.

Emergency Maternity and Infant-Care Appropriation

An appropriation of $4,400,000 for continuing the grants to States for emergency maternity and infant-care programs for the wives and infants of men in the armed forces was included in the Department of Labor appropriation for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1944.

The coverage of the program was extended by Congress to make the wives and infants of enlisted men in the first, second, and third pay grades of the armed forces eligible for care. Men in these grades constitute about 7 percent of all enlisted men. In expending the funds the Department will give first consideration to families of men in the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh pay grades.

State programs for emergency maternity and infant care were in operation in 37 States, Hawaii, Alaska, and the District of Columbia on July 15, 1943, and several other States were completing their plans.

In the month of June the number of authorizations for care reported by 33 State health agencies then having a plan in operation was 11,586, of which more than 95 percent were for maternity care and less than 5 percent for infant care. The cost to the State health agency per case averages $75.

Organizing a Health Program in a Rural School

A Parent-Teacher-Association Experiment

By Amber Arthun Warburton and Alice Heyl Kiessling, M. D.

Note.—The program described in this article was organized in the Franklin Sherman School, a seven-grade school having approximately 300 pupils aged 6 to 14 years. The school is located in the village of McLean, Va., but most of the children live in adjacent suburban and rural areas and come to school by bus. The pupils are from the homes of farmers, skilled and unskilled workmen, business men, clerks, and professional workers.

The article was written by the vice president of the local parent-teacher association and the medical director of the health program.

Children in the rural elementary school at McLean, Fairfax County, Va., now have the benefit of a well-rounded health program because the parents and teachers became concerned about the lack of health facilities in the community.

The private physician upon whom most of the families in this part of the county had depended had joined the armed forces in the early months of the war.

Public-health supervision for school children was largely confined to work with families by the public-health nurse for the McLean area. The county health department, with its limited staff, was unable to provide the necessary health services in the school. County-wide services available to school children, however, included a semiannual tuberculosis clinic, a quarterly orthopedic clinic, and an annual operative clinic for removal of tonsils and adenoids. Locally, the county health department conducted a biweekly maternal and child-health clinic, which had been opened for immunizations of school children for the duration of the war.

The county school board made available a small annual sum for the dental care of school children unable to pay for this service.

The State board of education regulations, approved by the State board of health, specify certain health measures to be taken in the public schools, including, among other requirements, a limited physical examination of each pupil at the beginning of the school year; in this school these examinations are given by the teachers.

Plans for the Program Take Shape

At the beginning of the 1942–43 school year the McLean Parent-Teacher Association decided that an important part of its work for that year should be the organization of a school-health program and asked its health committee to develop a plan. The committee believed that the program which would most benefit the health of the school children would include (1) organizing a school clinic, (2) arranging to aid children in receiving dental care, (3) improving the sanitary conditions in the school building, and (4) generally promoting health education for children and for parents and teachers.

The various phases of the program were developed to meet the recognized needs of the school. It was the consensus of opinion in the association that the teachers' responsibility for health supervision was out of proportion to their training and that the parents did not carry out the recommendations satisfactorily. The physical inspections made by the teachers in the first week of the school year had revealed that a shockingly large proportion of the children had obvious dental caries. This suggested the importance of providing dental correction. Since the school building was old and overcrowded, the custodial service inadequate, and the sanitary conditions of constant concern to the parents, periodic inspections of the school premises by the physician were thought advisable.

On May Day a prize was awarded to the class having the largest percentage of pupils who, during the year, had had a physical examination either by a private physician or at the clinic and had had dental examination and correction. Nearly half the children in the school had been examined by a physician during the year, and more than a third had had dental correction.

The Clinic

Arrangements were made to hold 36 clinic sessions during the school year, one for each school week. Three hours were allotted to each clinic period, in which not more than four or five children were to be examined. Part of each clinic session was to be used for monthly check-ups of children who were under observation or treatment. It was definitely decided to examine children only upon the written request of a parent and with the parent present to talk with the physician. (When a mother was working and could not come, she was represented by someone whom she selected.) It was decided to concentrate the examinations as far as possible in the first, fourth, and seventh grades, in order that each child would eventually have three ex-

aminations during his elementary schooling. The teachers, the public-health nurse, and the county child-welfare worker were asked to see that children who in their opinion especially needed health advice made use of the clinic.

A "Health for Victory" badge was awarded each child completing a physical examination in the clinic. These badges were fashioned from wooden dog licenses and were tied with red, white, and blue ribbon.

Staff.

The chairman of the health committee was the administrative director of the clinic. The medical director was a woman physician with special training in psychiatry, whose family of small children made it impracticable for her to undertake full-time professional work. She was also secretary of the county medical society. Since this physician also was in charge of the local maternal- and child-health clinic she was able in many cases to consider the health of the school child in relation to the family situation.[1] An agreement between the association and the physician was drawn up by a lawyer who was the father of one of the children. It was understood that the physician would make no home calls and give no advice by telephone, and that she would function in emergencies outside of clinic hours as a private physician. The physician was the only paid member of the clinic staff. Ten volunteer assistants were recruited from parents and other interested members of the community. A registered nurse was among these, and the physician trained the others for their various tasks.

Equipment.

The school gave the clinic the use of two rooms, which had electric outlets and running water. The equipment included a drug cabinet, a measuring platform made by one of the parents, thermometers, scales, a Snellen chart for visual testing, and first-aid, diagnostic, and laboratory equipment. Parents contributed such things as sheets, blankets, towels, and basins. A record sheet for each child examined was kept in an individual manila folder in a file. Record books included an appointment book, a ledger containing a summary of the results of the examinations of each child, a file of follow-up examinations, and the physician's personal record of abnormal findings.

Agreement With Medical Groups.

The proposed activities of the school clinic, including medical treatment, were discussed with the county health officer and the county medical society. Realizing the effect of the war emergency on this area, which had been deprived of nearly all resident medical services, both gave their approval of whatever treatment the clinic physician might be able to supply in the limited clinic hours.

Financing.

The budget of the clinic for the year amounted to $400; it included payment to the clinic physician and the cost of equipment and publicity. The county community chest contributed $100 and offered the same amount to any other school in the county that initiated a similar program. A local civic organization also contributed $100. Parents were asked to contribute $1 for each of their school children. The point was stressed, however, that the clinic was free and its use not dependent on a contribution. Contributions were received from most of the parents who used the clinic and from some who did not. Several, after visiting the clinic, increased their contributions. Before the end of the school year the budget was oversubscribed.

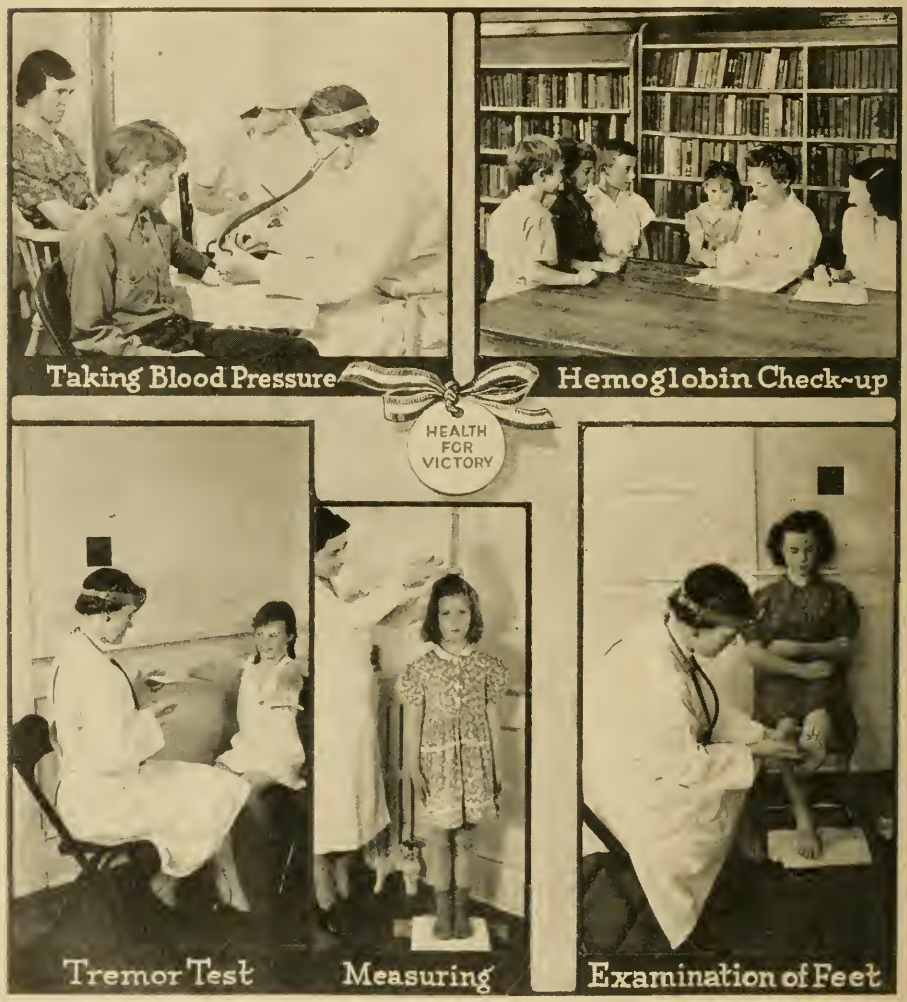
A Day in the Clinic.

Examination.—On clinic day the school library becomes the reception room. White-uniformed clinic assistants assemble the clinic equipment. The clinic secretary welcomes each mother and obtains from her the child's medical history. This is later filed in the clinic records, which are kept strictly confidential. In the meantime the assistants weigh the child, measure his height and his chest expansion, take his temperature, and test his vision.

The teachers' rest room, which adjoins the library, has been converted for the morning into a clinic room. There the physician, with the volunteer registered nurse and an assistant, gives the child a physical examination. During the examination the assistant records the findings. After reviewing the medical history and the examination findings, the physician talks with the mother and makes recommendations. A memorandum is given to the mother when she leaves. If the mother wishes to consult alone with the physician she may do so. If the findings indicate that the child should revisit the clinic a date for a check-up is set. The findings and recommendations made at each check-up are reported to the mother.

Mother's interview with physician.—The interview of the mother with the physician is a very important part of the health-education program, and plenty of time is taken for this, as it is the chief medium by which health information is given to the parents. In the discussion of the prevention of disease through inocu-

[1] The county public-health nurse at the maternal and child-health clinic was frequently consulted and was able to help with follow-up problems in connection with school children.



A Day in a School-Health Clinic

lation the importance of routine tetanus immunization is stressed. The interview gives the physician the opportunity to discuss with the mother such subjects as the child's nutrition, eating habits, and related emotional factors; the necessity for straightening teeth as a part of preventive dentistry; the proper method of brushing teeth, with demonstrations; posture exercises, with demonstrations by the physician and practice by mother and child. The prime necessity for extra rest for any underweight or anemic child is given special emphasis.

Periodic check-up.—After the medical examinations of the day have been completed, monthly check-ups begin. Children for whom extra rest and other treatments have been previously prescribed are called, to determine their progress. The children who need periodic health supervision, such as those having persistently high blood pressure and those markedly underweight or overweight, are reexamined.

The children often show considerable improvement, and are pleased when complimented on their progress. Today, however, there is Johnny, who was much underweight, and who has not gained. "I'm sorry," says Johnny, "I didn't get much rest because, you know, our house burned down. But I'll do better next month."

Problems encountered.

The clinic encounters and attempts to find solutions for a wide range of problems.

A frequent finding of the clinic was that children were underweight and anemic. Case histories suggested that their school day, which generally included two long bus trips, was overlong, without adequate rest periods. Nearly all the mothers felt that the overlong school day was a serious health hazard, and this was borne out by the clinic findings.

The L—— children, who live on a farm at some distance from the school, illustrate this type of problem. They must get up at 6 o'clock in the morning and, like many other children in this school district, they have to leave home as early as 7:15 to meet the school bus. This results in a hasty and scant breakfast as well as insufficient sleep. The children do not return home until 5 o'clock. When examined they were found to be undernourished and considerably underweight. Their mother was seriously concerned over their welfare. She would have driven them to and from school to shorten their day but could not get enough gasoline. The clinic, the school, and the parent-teacher association have attacked this combination of difficulties, and according to the plans for next year food and opportunity for rest will be provided during the day for such children.

Behavior problems affecting the health of the children also came to the attention of the physician.

Seven-year-old Mary had been showing an emotional disturbance. The clinic physician suggested to the mother that she take Mary to a private psychiatrist specializing in children's problems. Mary responded dramatically to the treatment.

Findings at Examination.

The clinic findings during the first year may not reflect accurately the condition of the children of the school, for a large proportion of the children examined in the early part of the year came from households that had an unusually good appreciation of health values.

Study of the medical histories showed that all the children had been vaccinated against smallpox and the large majority immunized against diphtheria. Five children had received tetanus antitoxin after an injury, but only two had been immunized with tetanus toxoid. Half the children had had their tonsils removed. With the exception of two who had heart disease as the result of rheumatic fever, the children had made good recoveries from the infectious diseases.

Approximately two-thirds of the children, at the first examination, had a hemoglobin level of less than 80 percent.[1]

According to the judgment of the physician, two-fifths of the children were underweight. (A large proportion of these showed marked improvement in later examinations.) Three-fourths of the children had poor posture. Two-fifths had obvious dental caries. Few serious conditions were found.

Treatment.

The work of the clinic included first aid, emergency consultations during clinic hours, remedial exercises, advice on diet, immunization and other preventive measures, and treatment, when feasible, for secondary anemia, common skin diseases, and such transient affections as colds, headaches, and dysmenorrhea. If the child showed defects that could be remedied by home attention or that needed regular medical supervision, he was given a follow-up examination. In cases where treatment outside the scope of the clinic was needed the physician informed the parent regarding sources of specialized medical care.

The Dental-Care Program

After consultation with the State health department, the health committee made arrangements to take children to a university dental-school clinic in the nearest large city. The county Red Cross motor corps provided transportation. During the year 38 children received

[1] Tallqvist's scale, which is simple and can be used quickly, was selected for use in making these tests, since the purpose was to obtain a rough estimate of the hemoglobin level.

dental correction at this clinic, some of them making many trips. The county school board contributed $33.66 from a special fund for dental work for children who were unable to pay.

Inspection of School Premises and General Health Supervision

At the outset of the program it was agreed that the physician should make a periodic inspection of the toilets and washrooms and a check-up of the temperature and ventilation in the schoolrooms. Special supervision of washrooms seemed to be necessary in this school, not only because of inadequate custodial service but because of the fact that many children came from homes without indoor toilets. The physician also agreed to assist the teachers in determining whether a sick child should be sent home, and to supervise the maintenance in the school of county quarantine regulations.

Health Education

All the activities of the health program were directed toward educating the children for healthful living. The visits to the school clinic and the dental clinic were considered important educational experiences. In addition, health education in the school was conducted through discussions with student groups led by the physician. She talked about the common cold, proper care of the washrooms, and personal and sex hygiene.

The health committee arranged a health program for a meeting of the parent-teacher association during the winter, at which the school physician demonstrated by tableaus the work of the clinic, and a visiting pediatrician discussed the responsibility of the school child in keeping well. Since the school cafeteria was not in use and most children brought their lunches from home, a need was recognized to promote better box lunches. At the school Hallowe'en party, attended by many parents and children, an exhibit was shown of well-balanced and varied box lunches.

Plans for Expanding the Program

Study of the health of the school children, as shown by the findings of the clinic, suggests certain measures that should be taken to aid the children in more healthful living. It is recognized that, as the war goes on and more parents are being absorbed in activities outside the home, as the food situation becomes more complicated, and as the problems of transportation multiply, it is increasingly difficult to maintain well-regulated homes, and children are likely to suffer. This parent-teacher association believes that the school should be alert to recognize factors that are adversely affecting the welfare of children, and that the school should be prepared to step in and supply the child's needs wherever possible. Accordingly, the association, with the cooperation of the school officials, is planning to expand the present health program.

Nutrition Program.

The nutrition committee has plans under way for a program that will include—

1. Hot cereal served to all children who need it on arrival at school in the morning. Children will be served this school breakfast on request of the parent or on recommendation of the physician or teacher.
2. Midmorning milk or fruit juice and crackers for all first- and second-grade children.
3. A complete lunch for children wishing to purchase one. This lunch will be planned to supply one-fourth to one-third of the child's nutritional requirements for the day. Lunch will be later for the children having midmorning milk or juice than for the others.
4. A bowl of hot soup or an equally nourishing hot main dish, available for every child in the school at lunch time, to supplement the box lunch for children who do not wish to purchase a complete lunch.

Some parents are planning to relieve the teachers in supervising the lunch period.

Rest During School Day.

The clinic physician has recommended daily periods of complete relaxation, lying down, as the most important single measure toward improvement of the children's health. The library will be used for the children's rest. Certain parents will be asked by the teachers to assist in the supervision of the rest period.

Measures for health education.

So as to permit discussion of health problems between the physician and the teachers, time will be allotted once a month for this purpose. Special posture exercises for children who need them will be given as part of the school work. If a child with an obvious cold comes to school he will be sent home (transportation will be provided by the county). Although the chief purpose of this precaution is, of course, to prevent the spread of communicable disease, its value for health education is obvious.

The newness of this program makes it difficult to appraise. More than a third (132) of the children in the school have had physical examinations in the clinic and many have been aided in obtaining dental care. Many of the children returning for monthly check-ups have shown an encouraging gain in weight and improvement in hemoglobin level. The children, their parents, and the school community have been helped to become more aware of the individual's responsibility in keeping fit, and have increased their knowledge of factors that influence healthful living.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

Better Nutrition for the Children of the Americas

Measures for improving the nutrition of the children of the American Republics, as suggested by the committee on nutrition of the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood, occupied the major attention of the recent meeting of the Institute's Council at Montevideo, Uruguay.

The urgency of problems of child nutrition had been called to the attention of the countries of the Americas by the Eighth Pan American Child Congress, which specifically asked that the Institute proceed without delay to study the situation. Pursuant to this recommendation, the Council appointed a special nutrition committee, under the chairmanship of Dr. Gregorio Aráoz Alfaro, President of the Council and representative for Argentina. This committee reported to the Council at the special session in Montevideo, May 28 to 30, at which time it presented several recommendations to the American Governments that are members of the Institute.

The Council not only approved the recommendations of the nutrition committee but also took action on other matters related to nutrition, as presented by the technical delegates.

The recommendations, together with other Council action related to nutrition, may be summarized as follows: The principal causes of the widespread undernutrition that impairs the health of the people of many countries and menaces their future development are insufficient production and uneven distribution of food, especially milk products and other protective foods; an economic level too low to permit purchase of foods available; and widespread ignorance of food values.

To combat these conditions the committee recommends, among other measures: Development of studies of the food needs, present food consumption, and nutritive status of children of different ages in typical regions of the various countries; setting up of adequate standards for the diets of children living in institutions and foster homes and technical supervision of food service to groups of children; more adequate instruction in nutrition for physicians, nurses, social workers, and teachers and the training of a nucleus of specialists in nutrition to work with them; extension of popular education in nutrition; long-time measures for the improvement of purchasing power of families and immediate measures for supplying food to families, especially to children and to pregnant or lactating women; intensive efforts to increase the quantity of milk available at a moderate price and to improve the quality of the supply.

As a contribution from the member representing the United States of America the committee presented a preliminary report on nutrition problems of the children of the Americas. The data for this report had been taken from statements sent in by nine countries in response to a special request from the nutrition committee and also from the many journals and bulletins in the Institute library. It was voted that this report be published after it had been submitted to all the Republics for amplification and correction.

The Council recognized the special need for studies of the milk problem in several countries and also studies of the nutritive value of certain little-known foods such as quinoa,[1] which largely makes up the diet of certain groups of the population. There was general support for the suggestion that the committee on nutrition be made a permanent committee of the Council.

Although the Institute is the international organization that was asked specifically by the Eighth Pan American Child Congress to stimulate efforts for the betterment of nutrition in the American Republics, it is not alone in this undertaking; other international agencies also are working toward this end. The Eleventh Pan American Sanitary Conference, which met at Rio de Janeiro in the fall of 1942, adopted recommendations that both supplement and reinforce those of the Child Congress. The International Labor Office has drawn up plans for dietary studies of population groups, which if used uniformly by all the countries studying food consumption would yield invaluable data for use in campaigns for nutritional betterment.

That all the American Republics are aware of the problem of child nutrition and that many of them are working harder than ever before to improve conditions is indicated by reports and confirmed by first-hand observations. In at least 13 of the American Republics a national agency is concerned exclusively with

[1] A cereal similar to millet, used in Bolivia and Peru.

nutrition; in an increasing number of countries State as well as National Governments have nutrition programs under technical direction.

The liveliness of interest in the problem was exemplified in the sessions of the First Peruvian Child Congress, held in Lima, July 3 to 10. In his inaugural address President Manuel Prado stressed the importance of adequate nutrition during the period of growth. Papers dealing with specific aspects of nutrition problems were included in the programs of at least two of the component sections, and the reading of these papers was followed by spirited discussion.

INTER-AMERICAN NOTES

Argentina

Nutritionists in the United States are welcoming a new Spanish-language journal[1] devoted to the study of human nutrition. The Dietetic Association of Argentina dedicates the first issue of its quarterly review to the President of the American Dietetic Association. Behind the Argentinian Association and its journal is the National Institute of Nutrition in Buenos Aires, which through its system of international scholarships is furthering the training of medical nutritionists and dietitians in all the countries of Latin America.

[1] Revista de la Asociación Argentina de Dietología. Vol. 1, No. 1, Enero–Febrero–Marzo 1943. Buenos Aires.

Brazil

Child-care exhibits (exposicões populares de puericultura) have been organized by the Federal Children's Bureau of Brazil and by its local agencies in various cities. Through its Division of Federal Cooperation the Bureau has been promoting the establishment in many municipalities of child-health centers, maternity homes, and other facilities for mothers and children and has been providing subsidies for them.

Courses on child care are given for physicians on the staff of the Bureau and popular courses are given for women and girls. The Bureau also issues publications on child care.

Boletim, Trimensal do Departamento Nacional da Criança, Nos. 8 and 9, 1942. Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

TELL US WHAT YOUR COMMUNITY IS DOING

The Children's Bureau plans to publish in *The Child* during the last 6 months of 1943 several short, graphic accounts of local activities illustrating the six-point program outlined in Community Action for Children in Wartime (Children's Bureau Publication 295). Contributions are invited. The six-point program calls for:

1. **A well-baby clinic in every community.**
2. **Care for children of employed mothers.**
3. **School lunches in every school.**
4. **Schooling for every child.**
5. **Play and recreation programs in every community.**
6. **Employment safeguards for every boy and girl.**

Stories should not exceed 800 words and may describe any one of these programs or any combination of them, as already existing in a community or as newly established. If photographs illustrating the program are available they should be submitted with the article. Send two typewritten copies of the manuscript if possible.

Give specific details—on ways in which community interest was stimulated, how the program was set up and financed, what groups helped, what features do most to make it a success. Don't think you cannot send in a story because the program is not county-wide; we want to know what *your own neighborhood* is doing.

Contributions received by the first of each month will be considered for publication in *The Child* for the following month. Reprints up to 100 copies will be available without charge to the author of an article accepted for publication. Address contributions to Editor, *The Child*, Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.

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STATUE IN MEMORY OF LUIS MORQUIO
Founder of the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood, Montevideo, Uruguay

UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
CHILDREN'S BUREAU

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The Children's Bureau does not necessarily assume responsibility for the statements or opinions of contributors not connected with the Bureau.

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UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY

CHILDREN'S BUREAU
KATHARINE F. LENROOT, CHIEF

WE ARE fighting again for human freedom and especially for the future of our children in a free world. Children must be safeguarded—and they can be safeguarded—in the midst of this total war so that they can live and share in that future.—*A Children's Charter in Wartime.*

• SAFEGUARDING THE HEALTH OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN •

Care for Every Mother at Childbirth

[Both these articles are based on remarks made at the twenty-fifth anniversary meeting of the Maternity Center Association, New York City, April 30, 1943.]

The Job Ahead

By Joseph W. Mountin, M. D.
Assistant Surgeon General, U. S. Public Health Service

Giving birth to a child is a painful, hazardous, and expensive procedure. Contrary to widespread belief, childbearing has many of the characteristics of an illness. Years ago Dr. De Lee pointed out that pregnancy brings organic and psychic symptoms identical with those of illness. It also brings disability in various degrees. Like sickness, it often results in permanent bodily damage or impairment of function, and sometimes in death. To these three points of similarity I would add another—that of the cost in dollars and cents.

If we regard pregnancy and childbirth as a form of sickness, I can think of no sickness that responds so well to even the simplest forms of medical attention. For example, a century ago in Vienna, Semmelweis reduced the maternal death rate in his clinic from 16 to 3 percent in a single year, merely by insisting that the attending physicians wash their hands in an antiseptic solution.

Besides preventing deaths the objectives of maternity care are to insure that the woman will carry her child to term and give birth to a live baby, to reduce to a minimum the discomforts and disabilities of pregnancy, to ease the pain and diminish the risks of labor, and to insure that no lasting disablement befalls either the mother or the child.

How many women in this country receive medical and hospital care at childbirth?

During 1941 in the United States there were two and a half million live births. Of these,

(*Continued on page 39*)

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A Basic Plan

By Martha M. Eliot, M. D.
Associate Chief, U. S. Children's Bureau

Today the American people see that we can no longer be prodigal of the lives of women in the child-bearing and child-rearing period of their lives. Nor can we be prodigal of the lives of their newborn babies, or of their older children. War has made us see how greatly the virility and tone of our democracy depend on the skill with which we rear children to be strong of body, sturdy of spirit, and understanding of heart.

Surely the first step toward this broad goal is the provision of universally good maternity care. European nations have long since taken steps to protect maternity. Countries like Sweden and Scotland have made efforts to provide for every mother and are constantly working to improve the quality of care. No comparable plan for care exists in any one of our States, but Congress in March 1943 made a significant move toward greater national recognition of public responsibility for the health of expectant mothers and their babies when it made special provision for the care of the wives and infants of men in certain grades of military service.

Congress has appropriated funds for medical, nursing, and hospital care for the wife and baby of any service man in the four lowest pay grades, without regard to income, residence, race, color, or creed. For April, May, and June of this year $1,200,000 was made available for allotment to the States cooperating in the program.[1]

[1] Congress later appropriated $4,400,000 for this program for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1944, and extended the coverage of the program to families of men in the first, second, and third pay grades.

The Children's Bureau has the responsibility for approving the plans made by the States for the use of the money. This is a function that the Bureau has in respect to all maternal and child-health plans under the Social Security Act, and it has been extended to include this supplementary program. Physicians will be paid for obstetric and pediatric care; hospitals will be paid on the basis of ward rates; nurses to help doctors in home deliveries will be paid; the visiting-nurse associations may be reimbursed for bedside care; trained nurse-midwives, under supervision of physicians, can be utilized if they are available; and social service will be made available through existing agencies.

Starting this program marks a red-letter day for the United States, for it is truly a program of public maternity care. It is small, to be sure, but its significance is great.

What would we have to do to assure good maternity care to every mother?

First of all, we have to make up our collective minds as to the basic philosophy on which we will proceed. Do we, as a Nation, intend to provide good care for every mother regardless of her place of residence, her race, and her financial status? Or are we going to be content with the makeshift plan we have today under which some mothers get the best care that is known anywhere in the world while others get along with no skilled assistance of any sort? When the people understand thoroughly what can and should be done, I do not doubt that they will insist on the first course. Given the will to provide good maternity care to every mother, the ways and means will be found.

What we want for every mother is easily stated: Medical care by a well-trained physician, starting, if possible, before conception or at least not later than the second month of pregnancy and given continuously throughout pregnancy, labor, and the puerperium; medical care for the newborn infant by a physician trained in the care of children; specialized consultant service readily available as needed by mother or child; nursing care by competent public-health and hospital nurses for the mother throughout the period of maternity and for the infant; hospital-clinic or health-center service for the prenatal and postpartum periods for all maternity patients who seek this type of care; delivery care and at least 10 days' postpartum care in a hospital with all possible safeguards for the health of the mother and newborn infant; facilities for boarding or convalescent care before or after delivery for those mothers whose physical condition or home situation requires it; the direct service of trained nurse-midwives working under the direction of a physician to assist with normal cases where there is an inadequate number of physicians to give necessary care; counseling service by a medical social worker in hospital and clinic to assure the provision of adequate food, shelter, clothing, and personal and family adjustment to the conditions of maternity.

This is the kind of care we want to provide. How soon can it be done? Can we not set ourselves a goal, a deadline? Is it out of the question to think that it can be developed year by year until within a decade the goal is attained?

Clearly, to make this type of care universally available within the next decade it is essential that a carefully worked out plan should be agreed upon at once and made ready for immediate use as soon as personnel and materials for construction are freed for civilian purposes after the war. This plan must take into consideration (1) the fixing of public administrative responsibility and methods of financing, (2) the preparation of alternative patterns of organization, (3) the establishment of standards of care, (4) the construction and equipping of new facilities needed to supplement those that exist now, and (5) the training of professional and technical personnel.

There would seem to be little reason why decisions should not be reached now as to the general framework and many of the details of a plan for public maternity care and medical care of children to be put into effect after the war. At best it will take 10 years to develop the program in all its parts; it may take longer. But today there is enough experience in this country and abroad to warrant laying down basic principles and a pattern of general procedure.

A review of this experience leads me to believe that the basic principles upon which we should build would be in general as follows:

1. Any public program of maternity care and medical care of infants and children should be the joint responsibility of local, State, and Federal Governments, financed under the grants-in-aid plan from general tax funds.

2. Administrative responsibility should rest with the State departments of health, with expenditure of Federal funds under plans approved by the Federal agency given responsibility for the grants.

3. The program should be State-wide in effect and be so organized as to include a network of maternity and pediatric services that will reach out from a few highly organized maternity and pediatric units in hospital and teaching centers to a chain of smaller hospitals and clinics located strategically in medium-sized cities and thence to the many small local maternity and child-

health units in towns and counties and rural areas.

4. Maternity care of good quality should be available under this program to any woman who seeks it, regardless of residence, economic status, race, color, or creed; eligibility should be on the basis of medical need alone.

5. Standards of care should be established by the responsible administrative agencies with the advice of experts in the various professional and technical fields.

6. Employment practices in the case of professional personnel should be determined, first, by the required standards of care and, second, by economy in the expenditure of public funds.

7. Hospital and clinic facilities meeting established standards of maternity and infant care and care of sick children should be available or easily accessible to every community, rural as well as urban; public institutions should be open to everyone in the community whether the community or the individual pays; existing voluntary, nonprofit institutions, if used, should meet established standards of financial accounting as well as professional service.

8. The plan for training professional and technical personnel should be part of the plan for service and should reach down from the most highly organized teaching unit to the smallest rural unit.

Obviously it is not a cheap line of goods that we as a Nation must buy. The total bill will be large because the goods must be "all wool and a yard wide." But we are already paying for a considerable proportion of it out of our individual pockets. If, instead, we should divide the total cost up and spread it out over the whole people in the form of general taxes collected by State and Federal Governments, annually it would probably not amount on the average to more than $2 to $2.50 per taxpayer.

With the termination of the war and the return of thousands of physicians to civilian life, a plan for intensive postgraduate training in obstetrics and pediatrics should be ready for those who wish to enter these fields of service. Opportunities for full-time or part-time employment in the public medical service (public-health or clinical) should be arranged in advance. Training must be supported by an equally well-devised plan for placement. The same provision must be made for nurses who on their return from military service may wish special advanced training in obstetric, pediatric, or public-health-nursing techniques.

With the cessation of war, raw materials for construction and for the manufacture of equipment will be available. Hospitals of all sizes and kinds will be built. A well-worked-out plan for maternity and pediatric units must be available in each State that will assure construction on the basis of need.

Obviously it is in rural areas that construction of maternity-hospital units must begin. We may need to revise our ideas as to what should constitute the smallest practical unit if we are to provide for these small towns and villages and farming areas. Perhaps in these rural areas, this smallest unit will have to be attached to a health center; perhaps it will be part of a small community hospital.

The best interests of the Nation would demand that only good care be tolerated and that standards of service be set and lived up to. General practitioners not already adequately trained could be expected to take postgraduate training. In a period of 10 to 15 years under a Nation-wide program combining service and training facilities, it is believed that a sufficient number of physicians could be given postgraduate training in obstetrics and pediatrics so that the services of physicians with such training could be made available to all parts of the country.

Conditions in the various States and in urban and rural areas would determine to a considerable extent the methods of payment for medical service. Having full-time salaried physicians in each hospital would certainly be the method of choice. In some areas payment on a part-time or case basis would be necessary. Supervision of service and administrative control would usually require full-time employment. In some of the rural areas experience may show that the full-time employment of well-trained nurse-midwives working under the supervision of physicians is the most effective and economical way of providing good obstetric care.

Each level of Government must play its particular part. Under our system the States stand in a position of great responsibility; but if, as is the case with such a vital program as maternity care, it is desirable and indeed necessary that all citizens concerned share equally in a service, then a pooling of resources and interests of all the States must take place through the Federal Government.

But actually the job must be done in each locality and the standards of care will in the last analysis depend on what the people demand. Throughout the process of planning and organizing any program of medical care, the planners and organizers cannot hope to go far ahead of what the people know they need and want. It is, therefore, the work done in the local community that counts in the end. Good care will not become universally available until the people themselves are keenly aware of the kind of care that should be provided.

Throughout the years great responsibility has been taken by private and voluntary groups of professional and nonprofessional workers for setting standards of maternity care, for training professional personnel, for developing techniques of care, for research, for advising government at all levels, and for informing the public of the kind of maternity care that should be expected. All this experience and the many facilities that exist today must be utilized in any expanding program of maternity care and medical care of children.

The question before all of us now is to decide how much we want a program like this.

We can achieve a safe and sound maternity-care program for every one of our mothers within the next decade, but only if we want it greatly. All we need to carry us through to the goal I have been picturing is the will to carry through.

New Evidence on the Effect on the Infant of the Mother's Diet During Pregnancy

Contrary to usual obstetric teaching, the adequacy of the mother's diet during pregnancy has a direct effect upon the physical condition of her infant, according to evidence presented by Bertha S. Burke and others, in a report entitled "Nutrition Studies During Pregnancy." This paper is one of a series reporting on a 12-year research program on the growth and development of the well child, undertaken by the Department of Child Hygiene, School of Public Health, Harvard University.[1]

As a step toward solving the problem of the extent of the dependence of the fetus upon the maternal diet, the authors studied the diets of 216 women in relation to (1) physical condition of the infant; (2) course of pregnancy—especially with regard to preeclampsia; (3) duration and character of labor and type of delivery; and (4) complications of the postpartum period.

The relationship between the adequacy of the mother's diet and the condition of the infant was found to be more marked than that between the diet and the course of pregnancy. "This indicates," according to the report, "that with an inadequate prenatal diet the fetus suffers to a greater degree than the mother. In other words, the fetus is parasitic upon the mother only to a certain extent, and that extent is limited apparently by the mother's nutritional state at the time she enters pregnancy and by the quality and quantity of her diet during pregnancy. It is of the utmost importance to realize this fact," say the authors, "because in the usual clinical examination during pregnancy it is not possible to evaluate adequately the condition of the fetus, and it is entirely possible that a woman may have an apparently satisfactory clinical course, but if she is consuming an inadequate diet the fetus will suffer."

The conclusions of the study are as follows:

1. This study has shown a statistically significant relationship between the diet of the mother during pregnancy and the condition of her infant at birth.

2. If the diet of the mother during pregnancy is poor to very poor, she will in all probability have a poor infant from the standpoint of physical condition. In the 216 cases studied, every stillborn infant, every infant who died within a few days of birth (with the exception of one), the majority of infants with marked congenital defects, all premature, and all "functionally immature" infants were born to mothers whose diets during pregnancy were very inadequate.

3. If the mother's diet during pregnancy is excellent or good, her infant will probably be in good or excellent physical condition. However, it may happen occasionally (1 out of 216 cases in this series) that a mother whose diet during pregnancy was "excellent" or "good" will give birth to an infant in poor physical condition.

4. A statistically significant relationship was found to exist between prenatal diet and the course of pregnancy. This relationship, however, is not as marked as that existing between the prenatal dietary rating and the condition of the infant. This indicates that when the nutrition during pregnancy is inadequate, the fetus suffers to a greater degree than the mother.

5. In this study, no mother whose diet during pregnancy was considered "good" or "excellent" had preeclampsia, while with a "poor to very poor" diet during pregnancy almost 50 percent had preeclampsia.

6. No statistically significant associations were found to exist between prenatal nutrition and the duration and character of labor and delivery. There was a tendency for the mothers whose diets during pregnancy were "poor to very poor" to have more difficult types of delivery and have more major complications at delivery, despite the fact that these women had, on the average, smaller infants than were born to the women whose diets were "good" or "excellent."

7. No relationships of statistical significance were found to exist between prenatal nutrition and the postpartum course. There seemed to be a tendency toward relationship between prenatal nutrition and the occurrence of major complications in the puerperium.

[1] Burke, Bertha S., M. A., Virginia A. Beal, B. S., Samuel B. Kirkwood, M. D., and Harold C. Stuart, M. D.: Nutrition Studies During Pregnancy. American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology, vol. 46, pp. 38–52 (July 1943). Single copies of a reprint of this paper may be obtained by writing to the Children's Bureau, Washington, or the Department of Child Hygiene, Harvard School of Public Health, 55 Shattuck Street, Boston.

Care for Every Mother at Childbirth; The Job Ahead—J. W. Mountin, M. D.

(Continued from page 35)

91 percent were attended by physicians. The remaining 9 percent were cared for by midwives or other nonmedical attendants.

This might seem to be a fair performance, but like most gross statistical expressions this one fails to indicate wide variations of great significance.

For example, the proportion of cases reported as not having a physician's care ranged from practically none in several States to approximately half in Mississippi. Medical attendance was more common in urban than in rural communities. In cities with a population of 100,000 or more only 1 percent of the cases were not attended by a physician; in cities from 10,000 to 100,000, 3 percent; and in small towns and rural areas, 17 percent.

There was also considerable variation among racial groups. Whereas only 3 percent of the live births among white people were not attended by a physician, the ratio among Negroes was approximately 50 percent.

Finally, the National Health Survey conducted by the United States Public Health Service in 1935–36 showed that there was a striking difference in the kind of treatment received by persons of different groups. Among the urban white population only 1 percent of the women in families with incomes of $2,000 or more lacked medical care at delivery, but 5 percent of those in families with incomes below $1,000 lacked such care.

Care Depends on Residence, Race, Income

The advantage of receiving hospital care during delivery is subject to the same determining factors—place of residence, race, and income—and here the deficiencies are even more pronounced. Thirty-nine percent of all the maternity cases in this country in 1941 did not receive hospital service. Nonhospitalized cases ranged from 6 percent in Connecticut to approximately 83 percent in Mississippi. Among white women only 34 percent lacked hospital care at delivery, but among Negroes, 73 percent. In cities of 100,000 or more, 10 percent of the deliveries took place elsewhere than in a hospital; in cities from 10,000 to 100,000, 17 percent; and in small towns and rural areas, 70 percent. Among the cases reported in the National Health Survey, only 12 percent of those in families above the $2,000 income level were not hospitalized, but among those below the $1,000 level, 45 percent.

Thus, broadly speaking, the type of care an expectant mother is likely to receive is determined by her place of residence, the color of her skin, and the amount of money she has. To be effective, future efforts to reduce maternal and infant casualties must be directed primarily towards correction of these basic inequities.

Unequal Distribution of Physicians and Hospitals

One of these inequities, namely, that related to place of residence, cannot be remedied until a more satisfactory distribution of physicians and hospital facilities is achieved.

Under our present systems of medical practice and hospital administration, physicians and hospitals tend to become ever more concentrated in centers of population and wealth. Even in 1939, before any doctors were requisitioned for military service, New York State had a ratio of 1 physician to 500 population, whereas Mississippi had only 1 to 1,400, a difference of nearly 3 to 1. In metropolitan counties of the Nation the physician-population ratio was nearly twice as high as in nonmetropolitan counties. In counties with per capita income of $600 or more the ratio was about 3 times as high as in counties with per capita income of less than $300.

Studies made by the United States Public Health Service show that this lack of balance has been growing steadily worse over a period of years. The reason, of course, is that doctors seek the financial and professional advantages of city practice. Now that the war has further aggravated the plight of the rural and low-income sections of the country, States with the fewest physicians in relation to population have contributed the largest proportions of their medical manpower to the armed services. In addition, there has been a large-scale migration of people to wartime boom areas where there were not enough physicians to take care of even the pre-war population.

Although the Procurement and Assignment Service of the War Manpower Commission has succeeded in persuading some physicians to move into these sorely pressed communities, it cannot hope to effect all the necessary relocations through persuasion alone. Therefore, it has been proposed that funds be provided to enable the Public Health Service when necessary to pay transportation expenses and limited subsidies to physicians who will agree to practice in the communities where they are most

needed. It is proposed that when physicians cannot be obtained by this method the Public Health Service shall assign medical personnel to render essential services.

This, of course, is an emergency plan. If it is adopted it will serve only to alleviate certain unusually critical situations brought about by the war. After the war we shall be faced with the necessity of finding some means of stopping the progressive loss of physicians in rural and low-income areas, and of supplying physicians for regions that have never had an adequate standard of medical service. There is no reason to expect that unfettered operation of the law of supply and demand will work any better in the future than it has in the past. Besides, demand is not always a reliable gauge of the need for medical care. People who do not know what good medical care is have to be taught, and the only way to teach them is to give them a sample of what you have to offer. It is sometimes said that certain communities are accustomed to getting along without doctors and would not know what to do with doctors if they had them. All this means is that the people there are used to the idea of being sick and dying without having a doctor attend them.

Medical Personnel Limited

With medical personnel so limited, it becomes doubly important to train auxiliary workers who can assist the doctor in a capable manner and save his time and energy by giving the mother proper instruction. A large part of the deficiency now prevailing in maternity care in many parts of the country could be met by extension of health-department services, especially in the field of public-health nursing. At the present time only about 1,800 of the 3,072 counties in the United States are served by full-time, professionally staffed health departments. Many of these departments, moreover, are little more than skeleton organizations, and their public-health-nursing resources seldom exceed 1 nurse for each 10,000 population. If an adequate standard of community nursing service is to be maintained, this ratio should be brought up to 1 nurse for each 2,500 people.

In the past we have been unwilling to explore the possibility of utilizing in an organized way obstetric attendants below the grade of physician. The so-called midwives who attend a high proportion of births in the southern part of the country are in reality nothing more than uninstructed neighborhood women who help one another out to the best of their poor abilities for a few days near and during the time of confinement. It is highly doubtful if the practice of these persons can be improved in any substantial degree. On the other hand, the nurse-midwife type of attendant now being trained by the Maternity Center Association represents a great advance over the unskilled service which is all that is now available to many mothers. My organization, the United States Public Health Service, appreciates the oportunity it now has to share in the financial support of this movement.

The need for additional hospital facilities is also apparent. And, like physicians, hospital beds should be distributed according to need rather than community wealth and resources.

If all maternity cases in 1941 had been given the 10 days of hospital care recommended for uncomplicated deliveries, a total of approximately 82,500 maternity beds would have been needed.[2] If we assume, on the basis of the accepted formula, that there were five-sixths as many maternity beds available as there were bassinets, the number of beds available in 1941 was 59,500, or less than three-fourths of the number required. Moreover, some of the beds theoretically assigned to maternity care were used for other purposes.

Generally speaking, hospital facilities are most inadequate in the areas where physician shortages are most pronounced. In 1941 the States that were more than 70 percent urban had 434 hospital beds per 100,000 population, whereas the States that were less than 30 percent urban had only 214. States with a per capita income of more than $600 had 410 beds per 100,000; those with a per capita income of less than $300 had only 172.[3]

Shortage of Maternity Beds

To illustrate how extreme this deficiency is in some places let us consider the State of Arkansas. If all the maternity cases in that State in 1941 had received the recommended 10 days of hospital care, approximately 1,300 maternity beds would have been needed. Yet only about 350 were available. There are States where the discrepancy between the number of maternity beds needed and the number available is even greater.

Here, then, will be an appropriate field for action in a post-war public-works program. Some additional hospital facilities are being provided now under the terms of the Lanham

[2] Adjustment made for multiple births. Computed on the basis of 25,631,550 bed-days with 85 percent full-time occupancy.

[3] These figures exclude such special hospitals as tuberculosis and mental-disease hospitals and veterans' hospitals.

Act, but shortages of building materials have made it impossible to construct anything but the most desperately needed facilities in relatively few war areas.

After hospitals are constructed they will have to be maintained and operated. Since individual and community resources in many places are not sufficient for this purpose, public assistance will be needed. Local health departments and voluntary hospital associations are the agencies best equipped to assume responsibility for operation, although financial grants from State and Federal sources undoubtedly will be required to insure full utilization of the facilities.

Another requirement for better maternity services is the provision of adequate health centers. Most local health departments today carry on their activities amidst surroundings that might charitably be called unfortunate but that frankness compels one to describe as disgraceful. They are relegated to the basements of city halls or county courthouses and shunted into dilapidated, out-of-the-way structures which other agencies would scorn to accept. Not only is it physically impossible to render good service in such quarters, but there is little chance to develop the kind of relationship that should prevail between department personnel and the recipients of care. This relationship is especially important in handling maternity cases.

The financial burdens of pregnancy and childbearing fall into two categories: (1) The cost of medical care, together with the loss of income sustained if the woman is gainfully employed, and (2) the added responsibilities and expenses that parents assume when a child is born.

Maternity Care Expensive

Because of the high cost of adequate medical and hospital care, there does not seem to be even a remote hope that many people in the low-income groups can arrange to pay for such care out of their own resources. For example, in 1939, 18 percent of the individuals who worked on farms had cash incomes of less than $100, and 40 percent had less than $200. In 1941, 15 percent of rural farm families had net money incomes of less than $250, and 33 percent had less than $500. If these people somehow or other should arrange to pay in the neighborhood of $100—a conservative estimate of what a fairly reasonable kind of care would cost in rural areas—the resulting deprivation of food and other necessities of life would probably more than offset the health benefits of such care. Therefore, some form of financial aid would seem to be the only solution.

For some parents, however, the cost of medical and hospital care is only the beginning of the financial strain imposed by having children. The mother who must return to work after her child is born is faced with the problem of seeing that the infant is properly cared for. Consequently, the interest of society in easing the financial burden should extend to the provision of child-care services, at least during the period of early infancy.

There is a broader justification for expansion of maternity programs than the benefits such expansion would confer on individual mothers.

In the early days of human history propagation of the race was left largely to blind operation of the sex urge. This was sufficient for the end in view, because offspring entailed few obligations on the parents. During the pastoral and agricultural stages of man's development, children became actual assets. The more hands a family had, the more it got out of the soil and the more it prospered. The industrial revolution did not immediately alter this situation, for until industry was brought under a degree of social control most children were put to work at an early age.

Children a Financial Liability

Later, increasing social consciousness and the practical necessity for developing skilled workers brought about restrictions on child labor. Compulsory school attendance was instituted, and the period of schooling was gradually extended. As a result a child is no longer a financial asset; instead he is, financially, a decided liability.

Yet society has taken almost no account of this change. It has made little effort to compensate those who are willing to assume the increasingly heavy responsibilities of parenthood. Therefore, it is not surprising that people today are not so ready to propagate as they once were. Despite the present abnormal wartime increase in the birth rate, I believe we can assume that the downward trend will reassert itself after the return of more normal times.

History teaches us that a vigorous nation usually has an increasing birth rate. A steadily declining birth rate, on the other hand, is apt to be a sign that a nation's best days are over. Sooner or later we in America will come to grips with this problem. The question of incentives and added safeguards for maternity will then be raised as one of broad national policy.

Inter-American and National Services for the Children of the Americas

By Katharine F. Lenroot, *Chief, Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor*

For the first time since 1924, the writer this summer had the opportunity of making the circuit of South America, down the west coast, across the Andes, and up through Brazil, the Guianas and Port of Spain, to Miami. Nineteen years ago, by boat, the trip took 20 days from New York to Santiago, 18 days from Buenos Aires to New York. This time, by air, the entire period covered only 1 month—8 days in traveling by plane and the remainder in stops ranging from a few hours to 8 days in six of the American Republics. But it was not the miracle of aviation nor even the growth of the great, modern cities of both the west and the east coasts, but the greater miracles of social progress, that made the trip a revelation and an inspiration—the development of the professions engaged in social service, public health, nutrition, and related undertakings; the scope and orientation of the far-reaching public and private services for children; the emphasis upon the importance of making security and opportunity for children central in national policy; and the official and informal cooperation and interchange among Nations to achieve these ends.

Underpinning and pervading all were the lasting friendships, the strength of common devotion and common purpose, enduring through two decades and full of promise for the future. It has been said that an institution is "the lengthened shadow of one man," and indeed the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood is the lengthened shadow of its founder, beloved friend of the children of Uruguay and of the world, Dr. Luis Morquio, to whose beautiful statue in a Montevideo park children and adults delight to bring their offerings of flowers. Even more, cooperation between countries is enduring and fruitful only as the bonds of understanding, friendship, and mutual interest exist among individual citizens. Thus it was the kindness, thoughtfulness, and friendship extended in every country, from the time one stepped from the door of the plane, or the night boat to Montevideo, to the time one waved good-bye to companions who at dawn had escorted their guest to the airport, that lend warmth to all one thinks, says, and writes of an unforgettable experience. The arrival in Buenos Aires on the morning of the Revolution of June fourth but intensified the feeling of shared experience and common devotion to democracy and a secure place for children in societies in which freedom has been and must be native and cherished.

The main purpose of the trip, made under the auspices of the Department of State and with the cooperation of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, was to attend a meeting of the International Council of the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood. Other objectives were to confer with the chairman and members of the provisional inter-American committee of schools of social work, created in the United States at a meeting of directors of schools in June 1941; to visit national and other child-welfare institutions and agencies; and to confer with officials and individuals concerning the most fruitful methods of inter-American cooperation in matters pertaining to the health, education, and welfare of children. The writer left Miami May 18 and returned June 21. In that period she had opportunity for brief visits or longer contacts in Panama, Peru, Chile, Argentina, Uruguay, and Brazil. Plans to visit Bolivia and Paraguay proved to be impossible to carry out.

Meeting of the International Council

The Council met at the headquarters of the Institute, in Montevideo, May 28 to May 30, inclusive, with members or officials from 10 countries in attendance, including technical delegates or members from the United States, Peru, Chile, Cuba, Argentina, and Uruguay; and diplomatic representatives from Bolivia, Costa Rica, Mexico, Peru, Venezuela, and the United States. The President, Dr. Gregorio Aráoz Alfaro of Argentina, the Director, Dr. Roberto Berro, and the Secretary, Dr. Víctor Escardó y Anaya, conducted the work of the Council and arrangements for delegates with the utmost thoughtfulness and efficiency. The meeting had been called especially to consider (1) the study of nutrition which had been made on the basis of reports submitted by Governments, and (2) proposals for extending and

Meeting of Council of American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood, Montevideo, Uruguay

strengthening the work of the Institute in the spirit of the recommendations of the Eighth Pan American Child Congress, which met in Washington in May 1942. Cooperation in the nutrition study had been given through Marjorie M. Heseltine, nutritionist on the staff of the United States Children's Bureau, who prepared a report submitted to the Council by the United States delegation. The Director of the Institute presented a report on nutrition, accompanied by a chart showing food consumption and other data for 13 American countries; oral reports for 2 other countries were submitted.[1]

Proposals for expanding the work of the Institute and a plan of work for the next biennium, made by the technical delegate from Peru, Dr. Manuel Salcedo, the technical delegate from Chile, Dr. Guillermo Morales Beltramí, and other delegates, were given careful study by special committees and by the officers of the Institute and formed the basis for the recommendations which were adopted. Briefly, these provide as follows:

1. For the creation of national advisory committees to assist the technical delegates in their work.
2. For meetings of the Pan American Child Congress every 4 years and meetings of the International Council of the Institute every 2 years.
3. For a technical advisory committee to the Institute, to review and approve the program of work.
4. For the organization of three technical sections, dealing with child health, including nutrition, education, and social welfare, each in charge of a full-time director.
5. For the organization of regional work in four regions, each region to be the responsibility of a technical delegate, responsible for direct personal contact with the countries in the region. The headquarters for the regional work will change every 2 years, in order that each country in turn may have such responsibility.

The resolutions provide for a continuing Technical Advisory Committee composed of three technical delegates who, together with the President of the Council and the Director of the Institute, would study and approve the programs of work presented by the chiefs of sections and the suggestions transmitted by the delegates in charge of zones. The delegates of Chile, Peru, and Venezuela were named members of this committee.

The zones into which the continent is divided for regional work and the technical delegates made responsible for these zones for the next 2 years are as follows:

North America and the Caribbean, in charge of the technical delegate from the United States.

Northern South America (Panama, Colombia, Venezuela, and Ecuador), in charge of the technical delegate from Venezuela.

Pacific (Chile, Peru, and Bolivia), in charge of the technical delegate from Chile.

Atlantic (Argentina, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Brazil), served directly from the headquarters of the Institute.

The Director of the Institute will be especially charged with maintaining close contact between the regions and sections, in order to conserve the unified and harmonious character of the work.

[1] Better Nutrition for the Children of the Americas. *The Child*, vol. 8, pp. 31–32 (August 1943).

The President of the Council and the Director of the Institute were entrusted with the responsibility for preparing the regulations and budgets for the new organization. These will be submitted to the technical delegates of member countries, who should make comments within a period of 60 days following submission, in order that the plan and comments may be submitted for the consideration and action of the Council. If no reply is received within 60 days, the plan will be deemed to be accepted without comment.

Inter-American Cooperation in Professional Education for Social and Health Services

The recommendations adopted by directors of schools of social work in June 1941 related in part to the work of a provisional inter-American committee of which Dona Stella de Faro of Brazil was named chairman, Señora Luz Tocornal de Romero of Chile, vice chairman, and Señorita Estela Meguira of Argentina, secretary. Conferences were held with these and other members of the committee and with Dr. Alberto Zwanck, Director of the School of Social Work of the Museo Social Argentino, which bestowed upon the writer the diploma of corresponding member in exercises at which both Dr. Zwanck and Señorita Marta Ezcurra, Director of the Catholic School of Social Work in Buenos Aires, spoke. The cooperation between these two schools in Buenos Aires is one of the most significant aspects of the development of professional training in that country.

It was agreed that the chairman of the committee would send a questionnaire to all the schools of social work asking for specific information in accordance with items suggested by Señora de Romero and Señorita Rebeca Izquierdo of Chile and others. This questionnaire will cover the organization of the schools, admission requirements, courses of study, field work, availability of fellowships for foreign students, relationships with allied fields such as public-health nursing, and other subjects.

Plans are being made for a conference of directors of schools, to be held next year, probably in Buenos Aires on the call of Dr. Zwanck, the director of the second oldest school on the continent. At this conference the development of basic requirements for schools of social work will be one of the principal subjects on the agenda. Development of such standards is very important as new schools are being established rapidly, in provincial as well as capital cities.

The oldest school of social work in South America, established in 1925, is the school under the direction of the welfare board (Junta de Beneficencia) of the city of Santiago de Chile, of which Señora Luz Tocornal de Romero is director. This school offers fellowships to students from other countries. A Bolivian student is the present holder of the fellowship. The National Institute of Nutrition of Argentina, whose program includes scientific studies and practical service, offers two fellowships each year to each American Republic. Former students of the Institute are carrying on important nutrition work in Bolivia and other countries, as well as in two of the provinces of Argentina—Santa Fe and Mendoza. The Institute trains physicians, dietitians, and social workers in the principles of nutrition and their practical application, the training for social work being carried on in cooperation with the school of social work of the Museo Social Argentino. Great emphasis is placed on the family as the unit for nutrition service.

There is need for the establishment in the metropolitan centers of South America of associations of social workers which will not be confined to the graduates of a single school, and for greater cooperation among the schools. Clarification of the role of the social worker, the health visitor, and the nurse is needed in some countries. There is great interest in opportunities for study of social work, child guidance, maternal and child health, and other subjects. It is important that such opportunities be available both in the United States and in other American Republics, and that practical experience in other countries as well as in the United States, particularly in rural work and in the development of Nation-wide programs, be made available for all. Substantial modifications and adaptations of such experience to the needs of particular regions and indigenous cultures will be necessary in certain parts of the continent.

Progress in National Services for the Health and Welfare of Children

The development of social-security laws in Chile, Peru, Brazil, and other countries affords extensive resources for maternal and child-health work. Chile's law was passed in 1924 and is much more extensive as to coverage and benefits provided than the social-security legislation of the United States, since it covers agricultural and domestic workers and provides insurance against the contingencies of illness, maternity, permanent invalidism, industrial accidents, and old age. Cash payments and extensive medical benefits are also provided, and physical examinations are required at

regular intervals. In Lima a modern and well-equipped workman's hospital has been established as part of the social-security program, with maternity, infant, and child-health services as well as services for adults, a school for nurses, and a social-service department which affords field experience to all students of the Lima School of Social Work. Eleven regional hospitals have been provided for also as part of the social-security program. In Brazil medical, legal, old-age, and nutrition assistance is given to insured workers, grouped by occupations. Complete family meals are sent by the nutrition service of the Social Security Branch of the Department of Labor, Industry, and Commerce to families of the unemployed for periods of 20 to 30 days. The National Institute of Nutrition of Argentina also sends food rations to needy families in certain districts.

Low-cost restaurants for workingmen, dining rooms for expectant mothers, children's dining rooms, and school-lunch programs have been extensively developed in South America under both public and private auspices, and housing projects are also in operation. There is little in the way of cash assistance to needy families aside from cash benefits under social-security laws. It is recognized that much must be done in family education as to nutrition and standards of living. Studies of family living standards are made by nutrition institutes and schools of social service. Schools training health visitors are in existence in Buenos Aires, Montevideo, and elsewhere, and a number of schools of nursing have been established. The Uruguayan Child Council is developing a 9-month course for rural educators in maternity and childhood.

National children's departments have developed extensive health and social services for mothers and children and are extending their services as rapidly as possible outside the capital cities. The development of these departments has been greatly influenced by the work of the United States Children's Bureau and the Pan American Child Congresses. The Center for Maternal Education of the National Institute of the Child of Peru gives courses in family education, public health, and child care to young people of both sexes, engaged girls, and mothers of families. Child-health conferences and home incubator service for premature infants are also carried on in this center. The director of the Institute is most anxious to develop Nation-wide maternal and child-health services.

In Chile the "Dirección General de Protección a la Infancia y Adolescencia" was established in the Ministry of Health, Security, and Social Assistance. The preamble to the decree cites the resolutions of the Eighth Pan American Child Congress and the importance of preferential attention by the Government to the protection of maternity and childhood. Among the functions of the new office are the guidance and coordination of the work of semipublic, municipal, and private organizations and formulation of general standards for their operation. Preventive and curative maternal and child-health work, child-guidance clinics, children's homes, settlements, children's clubs, foster-home and other services for children in need of special care are among the services provided. A recent report on services to children in Chile by the director stresses the advantages of foster home over institutional care and states that children in foster homes will be supervised by pediatricians, social workers, and visiting nurses. A private children's organization (Consejo de Defense del Niño) in Santiago maintains day-care centers for children of working mothers and other activities.

Argentina is developing maternal and child-health centers in many parts of the country under the national "Dirección de Maternidad e Infancia." The social-security and child-welfare legislation of the Province of Santa Fe is particularly advanced, and courses for social workers have been established in Rosario. The national child-welfare agency (Patronato Nacional de Menores) maintains a number of institutions, of which an agricultural and industrial colony for boys on the cottage plan and a similar, though much smaller, school for girls are particularly notable.

The public child-welfare work of Uruguay is centered in one agency, the Urugnayan Child Council, which has abandoned entirely the concept of orphan asylums, substituting therefor an extensive child-placing system, homes for study and short-time care, and cottage-plan institutions for young people committed through court action. Extensive maternal and child-health services are also carried on by this organization. A Nation-wide private child-welfare organization has developed school lunches, nursery schools, and children's centers on a neighborhood basis, and a society for crippled children maintains a school under the devoted and competent direction of a young woman who has studied in the United States.

The National Department of the Child of Brazil, established in its present form after careful study of the United States Children's Bureau, has established maternal and child-health centers in many parts of Brazil, does extensive educational work, and conducts a

demonstration hospital for children in Rio de Janeiro, where clinical research is carried on.

These developments have been stimulated by national child-welfare conferences, the most recent being the one held in Peru in July of this year under the auspices of the Pediatric Society of Peru. In general, pediatricians have been pioneers in the development of services for children, including, in some countries, social services. Señora de Benavides, wife of the former President of Peru, Señora de Prado, wife of the present President, and Dona Darcy Vargas, wife of the President of Brazil, have given great impetus to the development of services for children and social services in these countries. The Welfare Society of Buenos Aires, founded in 1823, is managed entirely by women, as are similar welfare boards in a number of other cities, and maintains hospitals and institutions which receive large Government subsidies. In Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo the women have been organized for civilian-defense work under the leadership of Dona Vargas, and are developing extensive child-welfare services, including a cottage-plan institution for girls.

In a brief trip, and briefer report, only the most conspicuous examples of trends and developments can be observed and recounted. Although much has been accomplished, the outstanding impression of a visitor to South America is the conviction of those one meets that we are only on the threshold of a movement which must receive much more complete recognition if the children of the New World are to be given the opportunities that are essential to enable them to play their part in developing a civilization of and for free men working together for the common welfare.

First National Child-Welfare Congress in Peru

The First National Child-Welfare Congress of Peru met in Lima, July 3–10, 1943. It was attended by representatives of child-welfare and social-welfare agencies, scientific organizations, and municipal governments. At the invitation of the Congress, the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor sent a delegate—Marjorie M. Heseltine.

Immediately before the opening of the Congress, a "Mother and Child's Week" (La Semana Materno-Infantil) was celebrated throughout the country. Groups of professional workers and of citizens held meetings to discuss maternal and child-welfare problems of the province or municipality. Visits were scheduled to hospitals, health centers, and other agencies to acquaint the public with the work in behalf of mothers and children. Daily radio broadcasts by leaders in child health, child welfare, and education supplemented the conferences and visits of observation.

The Congress, organized by the Pediatric Society of Peru, was held under the auspices of the Government. The President of the Republic delivered the inaugural address and presided at the opening session.

The announced purpose of the Congress was to consider the child from the biologic and social point of view. The Congress worked in four sections: Medical and surgical pediatric problems; public health; health and welfare work for children; mental hygiene of children and child-welfare legislation.

The speakers emphasized the importance of child protection through awakening in parents a sense of responsibility toward their children and through providing on a national scale proper housing and food for children, health education for the public, and trained staffs for welfare agencies.

As signs of progress in Peru, the delegates reported the recent organization in cities of child-welfare committees consisting of physicians, judges, teachers, and parents; the drafting of a children's code, the early enactment of which is expected; the enlargement of hospital and dispensary facilities for children in several cities; the establishment of prenatal clinics and child-health centers; and the employment of nurses to visit mothers and infants in their homes. As a signal achievement mention was made of a presidential decree, issued the day before the opening of the Congress, establishing a National Maternal and Child-Welfare Service (Servicio Nacional de Protección Materno-Infantil). This service, under the National Bureau of Public Health, is to have charge of both health and welfare work for mothers and children throughout the country and to coordinate and supervise the work done by public and private agencies. The service is to be directed by the head of the National Institute of the Child (Instituto Nacional del Niño), official agency in charge of maternal and child-health work.

The Congress, inspired by the principle of continental solidarity in the matter of child protection, announced itself in favor of a "charter of rights for the Peruvian family." The component elements of this charter were

embodied in the resolutions of the Congress, which emphasized that security for the child is the responsibility of society and called for placing the family on a sound moral, legal, and social basis. This would require: For the head of the family, whether man or woman, sufficiently well-paid work; for the family group, wholesome living quarters, educational opportunities, economic advancement with the growth of the family, and public aid in case of illness or other emergency; for the mother, suitable medical care and social service during pregnancy and at childbirth, instruction in child care, and income sufficient for the proper care of the child; for the child, conditions permitting normal growth and development—family life, proper food, attention to his physical and moral health, educational opportunities, and vocational guidance.

As measures toward the practical application of this program the Congress recommended: (1) enactment of laws relating to family welfare; (2) provision for all mothers and children of medical care, social service, and education; and (3) coordination of the technical, financial, and administrative work of the country's agencies serving mothers and children.

• EVENTS OF CURRENT INTEREST •

Death of Dr. A. T. McCormack

The Children's Bureau has lost a valued adviser through the death on August 7, 1943, in Louisville, of Arthur Thomas McCormack, M. D., Dr. P. H., State Health Commissioner of Kentucky.

Dr. McCormack, who was born August 21, 1872, had been Kentucky's State health commissioner for more than 30 years. He and his father, Dr. J. N. McCormack, whom he succeeded, have been the only State health commissioners Kentucky has ever had.

Friendly, diplomatic, courageous, Dr. McCormack was known internationally as well as nationally for his work in the development of public-health services, which he continued almost to the day of his death.

Resolutions of the National Education Association

At its representative assembly in Indianapolis, June 29, 1943, the National Education Association of the United States adopted resolutions relating to educational affairs in wartime and the post-war period. In regard to juvenile delinquency it urged that the schools, in cooperation with other agencies, develop a constructive program to counteract those forces which are contributing to juvenile delinquency, and strongly recommended the adequate enforcement of all laws designed to protect the interests of youth; the guidance necessary to enable youth to serve their country in the capacities for which they are best qualified; and such administrative changes or measures as may be necessary to emphasize and promote more specifically character education in the schools of our Nation.

CONFERENCE CALENDAR

Oct. 5–7 ____ National Safety Council. Thirty-second national safety congress and exposition. Chicago.

Oct. 8–10 ___ International Association of Governmental Labor Officials. Twenty-eighth annual conference. Chicago.

Oct. 12–14 __ American Public Health Association. Wartime conference and seventy-second annual business meeting. Permanent headquarters: 1790 Broadway, New York City 19.

Nov. 7–13___ American Education Week.

"Back to School" Campaign

The Children's Bureau and the Office of Education are initiating a back-to-school campaign to reduce child labor and encourage attendance at school during the new school year.

To this end a pamphlet, Back to School, containing suggestions for a fall campaign, has been prepared jointly and issued by the Children's Bureau (Washington, 1943. 12 pp. Processed).

This leaflet sets forth ideas for convincing children and grown-ups of the need of youth for education and the need of the country for educated youth.

"We must find the words that ring positive notes in the ears of our youngsters," says the leaflet, "that make them feel that they are important in a world at war and that their very youth is the most precious asset that the Nation owns. We must find the words to convince adults that the unplanned child labor we are permitting now is the most expensive way possible of meeting labor needs."

If boys and girls in essential jobs cannot be replaced from suitable labor reserves, the leaflet urges that properly guided projects be worked out for part-time jobs and part-time school.

New and Revised Children's Bureau Publications

Maternal and Infant Care

Standards and Recommendations for Hospital Care of Newborn Infants, Full-Term and Premature. Publication 292. Washington, 1943. 14 pp.

Assistance to hospitals in maintaining the high standards that have been developed in recent years for the care of newborn infants, while modifying some procedures to meet wartime conditions, is offered by this pamphlet. A statement of standards representing in general the consensus of present pediatric opinion is given, not as minimum standards pointing out the least that can be done for infants in hospital nurseries without jeopardizing their lives, but rather as standards pointing out the type of care for such infants that will best safeguard their health.

Baby's Daily Time Cards. Revised 1943. Five cards, giving daily routine and training for babies from birth to 1 year of age.

The Expectant Mother. Folder 1. Revised 1943.

Breast Feeding. Folder 8. Revised 1943.

Out of Babyhood Into Childhood. Folder 10. Revised 1943.

Emergency Maternity and Infant Care for Wives and Infants of Enlisted Men in the Armed Forces. Folder 29. 1943.

Child Care

Supervised Homemaker Service; a method of child care. Publication 296. Washington, 1943. 36 pp.

Basic procedures and fundamental principles in the organization of a program of homemaker service are outlined in this bulletin for the use, primarily, of workers in family and child-placing agencies. The bulletin should be of value also in determining how homemaker service may be adapted for use in a community program for the care of children of employed mothers. The material is based on discussions initiated by the Committee on Supervised Homemaker Service, which is composed primarily of representatives of private social agencies that have used homemaker service as one method of giving assistance to families. Case illustrations of five types of homemaker service are included in the appendix.

The Selection and Training of Volunteers in Child Care. Children's Bureau Publication 299. Washington, 1943.

Prepared by the Children's Bureau in cooperation with the Office of Civilian Defense, this manual brings together for the use of child-care committees and community agencies that handle the training of child-care aides, suggestions gathered from various sources as to the training of volunteers.

The manual discusses the purposes of volunteer training, where the responsibility lies for organizing the courses, the selection of suitable volunteers, the planning and supervision of the course, techniques of teaching volunteers, and the placement of trainees.

The content is outlined for 12 lecture periods followed by discussions, and suggestions are given for field and observation trips and for additional practice and reading. The value of in-service training is emphasized.

Child Employment

Ten Questions Answered About the Child-Labor Provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. Folder 26. Revised 1943.

Hazardous Occupations Subject to a Minimum Age of 18 Years Under the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. Folder 27. Revised 1943.

Age Certificates Are the Employer's Protection Under the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938. Folder 28. Revised 1943.

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THE CHILD

Vol. 8 October 1943 No. 4

In This Issue . . .

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by Sarah S. Deitrick, M. D.
and Ruth Cowan Clouse, Ph. D.

Policies for Part-Time Employment of School Youth

Industrial Accidents to Minors Increasing,
by Miriam Noll

Inter-American Cooperation

UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
CHILDREN'S BUREAU

THE CHILD — MONTHLY BULLETIN

Volume 8, Number 4 — October 1943

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY

CHILDREN'S BUREAU

KATHARINE F. LENROOT, CHIEF

WE ARE fighting again for human freedom and especially for the future of our children in a free world. Children must be safeguarded—and they can be safeguarded—in the midst of this total war so that they can live and share in that future.—*A Children's Charter in Wartime.*

• SAFEGUARDING THE HEALTH OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN •

Adequate Diets for Mothers and Children Under Rationing*

By Sarah S. Deitrick, M. D., *Chief,* and Ruth Cowan Clouse, Ph. D., *Nutritionist, Maternal and Child Needs Section, Civilian Food Requirements Branch, Food Distribution Administration, War Food Administration*

Uppermost in everyone's mind at present, as evidenced by its popularity as a topic of conversation, is food and, in particular, the kinds of food that are rationed. Dislocations in production and distribution, caused by the war, have contributed to the difficulties faced by the housewife when she goes to the grocery store and add to the complexities of rationing. Mothers of small children are particularly concerned, since many are afraid to make substitutions in a diet on which a child is thriving, especially if the details of that diet were originally advised by a physician.

The Civilian Food Requirements Branch of the War Food Administration has received numerous letters from anxious mothers who have not been able to find their accustomed brand of evaporated milk in the stores, who cannot get the kinds of meat they think their children should have, who cannot find butter but are afraid to use oleomargarine for their children, who are convinced that their babies must have only strained or chopped fruits and vegetables that are commercially canned, who are worried over a local and short-lived scarcity of oranges. The following telegram is typical:

> Am unable to buy beef, lamb, veal, or butter. What can I feed my grandchildren age 2 and 5? My daughter in _____ (*City*) with four children under 5 years has same trouble. Cannot measures be taken to furnish _____ (*State*) with proper food for children?

It seems evident that many mothers need information and advice on feeding children under rationing, and consideration of the various types of food required in the child's diet seems timely.

The most important single item of food for infants and children is milk. If it is to meet their needs, it must be safe, reasonably uniform in composition, and available in sufficient amounts. At present only one type of milk—canned milk—is rationed. This rationing was put into effect on June 1, 1943, and canned milk was placed on the same ration stamp as meat, fat, and cheese. The present ration allowance for children, which is the same as that for adults, permits infants and small children under 5 or 6 years of age to obtain all their milk requirements in the form of evaporated milk if necessary, and also to obtain their requirements for meat and fat. Mothers who use evaporated milk will be interested to know that the composition of this food is required to conform to strict Federal standards. Evaporated milks, therefore, are highly uniform, and if one brand is not available another can be substituted with no change in nutritional value. Most of the brands are irradiated, or fortified with vitamin D, but a few are not; and this, from the nutritional point of view, is the only difference that needs consideration when one brand is substituted for another.

The problem of meeting the needs of children over 5 or 6 years of age, when they live in areas where fresh milk is not readily available, is a difficult one. On the present ration allowance these older children cannot substitute sufficient evaporated milk to meet their milk requirements and at the same time get the amounts of meat and fat usually recommended. This problem has been brought to the attention of the Office of Price Administration, and it is hoped that some methods will be worked out of providing evaporated milk for children and others living in areas where fresh milk is not reasonably accessible.

Meat supplies have been especially uneven, a situation due largely to problems of distribution. Mothers should understand that no fixed quantity of meat is necessary in a child's diet, or for that matter, in anyone's diet. If rationed meat is temporarily unavailable, additional amounts of eggs and milk are satisfactory substitutes in the diet of the child, as

*As of September 1, 1943.

is poultry, and also fish if carefully boned. Although muscle meats have at times been difficult to obtain, liver has usually been available and is, of course, one of the best forms of meat for the child's diet. This need not be calf's liver, but can be any form of liver that is available. Fats make up a comparatively small portion of the young child's diet, but those used should be of high nutritional value. So far as we now know, oleomargarine fortified with vitamin A is nutritionally equivalent to butter. It is digested as easily as butter and is acceptable to most children.

Citrus-fruit or tomato juice is needed as a source of vitamin C by all infants and children. Since fresh citrus fruits in particular have been plentiful and will, according to present estimates, continue to be plentiful, no special measures to provide them for children seem to be necessary. If, because of distribution difficulties, the widely used fresh orange juice is not available, an equal quantity of canned grapefruit juice, sweetened to taste, is an acceptable alternate. It should be kept in mind that fresh or canned tomato juice, when given in quantities twice as large, provides the same amounts of vitamin C as the citrus-fruit juices.

With regard to fruits and vegetables, the present ration allowance permits the child under 2 to get his entire requirements from canned products, if canned grapefruit juice is used rather than canned tomato juice and if the 4¾-ounce cans of strained fruits and vegetables at 1 ration point per can are used. The child from 2 to 3 who eats unstrained fruits and vegetables bought in household-sized cans is able to get approximately half his total requirements of fruits and vegetables, including citrus fruits and tomato juice, in this form. It should be recognized that although canned foods, strained or unstrained, are convenient and time-saving, especially for working mothers, they are not essential to the diet of the infant or small child, and that the home-cooked product, prepared from fresh fruits and vegetables, which are unrationed, is equally valuable from the nutritional point of view.

No less important for the baby than for the mother herself is the diet of the pregnant woman. Currently accepted standards demand that, at least in the latter half of pregnancy, her diet contain increased amounts of all the recognized dietary essentials, including protein, calcium, iron, and the several vitamins.[1] This means that increased amounts of protein-rich foods such as milk, eggs, cheese, and meat, as well as larger quantities of other foods such as vegetables and fruits, must be used. No difficulty is encountered in meeting these increased requirements on the present ration-point allowance in communities where normal supplies of fluid milk, eggs, fish, poultry, and fresh vegetables and fruit are available. In areas where fish and poultry are not readily available eggs can be substituted for meat in the proportion of 2 eggs for each 4 ounces of meat (raw weight). Where sufficient eggs, as well as fish and poultry, are not available, the proportion of dried beans, peas, and cereals must be increased.

An expectant mother living in an area where fluid milk is not reasonably available may obtain extra ration stamps for the purchase of evaporated milk on application to her local rationing board. Under the present regulations of the Office of Price Administration supplemental allowances of rationed foods may be obtained, provided it is made clear that these foods are essential for her health and that the nutritional equivalent in unrationed foods cannot be obtained.[2] The application must be accompanied by a written statement from her physician showing the amount and kind of food needed and why unrationed foods cannot be used instead.

A woman who is nursing her baby, even though her food requirements are well above those of the expectant mother, is not handicapped by present ration allowances. This is because she may use her baby's ration allowance as well as her own.

Two weekly market lists, representing two levels of cost, prepared by the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics of the United States Department of Agriculture are being published for use as guides in the purchase of adequate wartime diets for children of several age groups and for pregnant and nursing women, as well as for other groups in the population.[3] Each of these diets meets the standards for good nutrition recommended by the Food and Nutrition Board of the National Research Council. The chief point of difference is that the low-cost diet includes larger allowances of dried beans, peas, nuts, and flour and other cereal products, while the higher-cost diet contains larger quantities of meat, including poultry and fish, and of fresh fruits and vegetables. The requirements of the low-cost diet are readily met on the present ration-point allowance. The meat allowance of the higher-cost diet can be obtained if larger

[1] Food and Nutrition Board, National Research Council: Recommended Dietary Allowances. Reprint and Circular Series, No. 115, January 1943.

[2] See sec. 2.4 of Ration Order 16 and sec. 2.5 of Ration Order 13, Office of Price Administration (Washington, 1943).

[3] U. S. Department of Agriculture: Wartime Diets for Good Nutrition. September 7, 1943.

than average amounts of poultry and fish are used. Specific suggestions as to substitutions of unrationed for rationed foods may be found in another recent publication of the Bureau of Human Nutrition and Home Economics, which contains a list of 11 food groups, with examples of food items in each group and suggestions for alternates of equivalent nutritional value.[4]

For some time the Civilian Food Requirements Branch has been working with other interested groups on the problem of obtaining adequate allowances of rationed foods for nursery schools, school lunches, and other child-feeding projects. Many schools are located in isolated areas where fresh fruits and vegetables are not available during the winter months, and because of this and other special conditions, these schools have higher than average requirements for processed fruits and vegetables.

An advance press release dated September 5 from the Office of Price Administration indicates that a forthcoming amendment to the present regulations will permit unlimited use of certain home-canned, dried, or frozen fruits and vegetables by educational and charitable institutions. This is accomplished by charging the school or institution not more than 10 percent of the total ration points allotted for any one period for its use of any one kind of processed food, such as tomatoes. This means that a school, for example, could use unlimited amounts of 10 varieties of home-canned fruits and vegetables if it had them, or use unlimited amounts of fewer varieties and have some points remaining for the purchase of commercially canned foods. This amendment applies only to fruits and vegetables which in no case would have been marketed commercially.

Other regulations under consideration are expected to include provision for a simplified procedure that will relieve schools of some of the other restrictions imposed on restaurants and other eating places operated at a profit.

The present over-all picture for infants, children, and pregnant women, with respect to the current food supply, is favorable. It is not anticipated that supplies of either milk or eggs will be short enough to necessitate rationing of these foods. Should this occur at some future time it would become imperative to provide for differential treatment of children, pregnant women, and other vulnerable groups. At the present time problems of distribution are the main source of concern in the consideration of the needs of these special groups. An example of faulty distribution is that of evaporated milk, which has been fairly plentiful in the North and insufficient in certain areas of the South and Southwest, the very regions where supplies of fresh milk are inadequate and evaporated milk, therefore, is most needed.

Another problem in connection with diets of mothers and children is whether or not these groups will be able to meet the present increased cost of an adequate diet. If they do not have the money to purchase enough of the more expensive unrationed foods such as milk, eggs, and fresh fruits and vegetables, they will be unable to meet their nutritional requirements. A partial solution of this problem would be an increase in public-assistance grants. A case in point is a mother who is receiving an allowance under the Aid to Dependent Children program. Such a mother must now spend an unduly large proportion of her allowance for food and thus sacrifice other needs of her children, if she gives them an adequate diet.

If problems of distribution can be solved, so that the essential foods can be purchased in all areas, and if food is produced in accordance with present estimates, then—assuming sufficient purchasing power—a nutritionally adequate diet should be available to mothers and children in all parts of the United States for the coming year.

[4] United States Department of Agriculture: Diet Planning Under Rationing. FE 407. Washington, 1943. 2 pp. Processed.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

Additional Funds Granted for Emergency Maternity and Infant Care

The joint resolution (H. J. Res. 159) making additional appropriations for emergency maternity and infant care was passed unanimously by the House of Representatives on September 22 and by the Senate on September 28.

The measure makes $18,600,000 available to the Children's Bureau for grants to State health agencies for emergency maternity and infant care for wives and infants of men in the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh pay grades of the armed forces of the United States. This appropriation is in addition to the $4,400,000 previously appropriated for the fiscal year 1943–44, which has already been allotted. A sum of $20,000 was also appropriated for administrative expenses of the Children's Bureau in connection with the program.

Federal Aid for School-Lunch Programs

The Food Distribution Administration, United States Department of Agriculture, has announced that some type of lunch will be available to approximately 5,000,000 children, many of them children of war workers, in 1943–44 through school-lunch programs. The lunches will be designed to maintain children's diets at an adequate level in spite of wartime food shortages and dislocations of home life.

Under the new purchasing plan, the Department of Agriculture no longer purchases foods directly for distribution to schools through State welfare agencies, as it has done since 1935. Instead, the local sponsors of the school-lunch programs will purchase the food direct from local merchants and farmers and be reimbursed, up to specified amounts, by the Food Distribution Administration. The Government will pay approximately 60 percent of the food cost. The "reimbursable list" of foods contains a wide variety of nutritious products, including fruits, vegetables, meat and poultry, milk and cheese, butter, eggs, and cereals. The equipment, labor, and supervision, as well as part of the food, must be furnished by State and local agencies or by civic groups.

Three types of lunch may be provided under the new program, which combines features of the former school-lunch and school-milk projects. Type A lunch includes all the items necessary for a balanced meal. Type B consists of smaller portions of the same foods and is less adequate nutritionally. Type C is a half pint of milk. Reimbursement by the Food Distribution Administration will range from 9 cents for type A to 2 cents for type C. The prices charged for lunches must not result in profit; any surplus funds must be put back into the project to improve the quality of the meals or the service.

In authorizing expenditures of Federal funds up to the amount of $50,000,000 to assist school-lunch programs through purchases of food Congress recognized that the health of the Nation's children is a resource that merits special protection. The program is not limited to children in families of low income; the lunch must be available to all children in the school. Since available funds may not be sufficient to help all schools asking for Federal aid, however, it is important to develop the program first in schools where the greatest need exists. In spite of the fact that the national income is higher than ever before, many families still are unable to provide their children with adequate diets, either because of lack of sufficient income, or because of the scarcity of certain essential foods, or because no one in the family has the time, the skill, and the knowledge of nutrition necessary to purchase and prepare well-balanced meals under wartime conditions.

Groups who wish to apply for Federal aid for the school-lunch programs should address requests to the nearest regional office of the Food Distribution Administration, located in New York City, Atlanta, Chicago, Des Moines, Dallas, Denver, and San Francisco.

Provisional Data on Vital Statistics for 1942

The Bureau of the Census has recently released the first of its regular series of special reports showing provisional data on vital statistics for 1942 for the United States.[1] The following quotation summarizes the situation in regard to the birth rate:

> The reported crude birth rate for the United States rose sharply, from 18.9 live births per 1,000 estimated population in 1941 to a provisional rate of 20.9 in 1942, an increase of 10.6 percent. The rate for 1942 is the highest reported for the birth-registration area since 1925, when the reported rate was 21.3. The largest increases between 1941 and 1942 occurred in the northeast, middle-west, and far-west sections of the country. These areas contain in general the most important centers of war production, and they experienced a relatively large volume of in-migration of persons in the reproductive ages during 1941 and 1942.

The provisional death rate (10.4 per 1,000 estimated population) is the lowest ever recorded for the United States.

The number of infants reported as dying in the first year of life is only slightly less than the figure for 1941, but because of the increase in the number of births, the provisional infant death rate of 40.4 (infant deaths per 1,000 live births) is considerably lower than the final figure for 1941, which was 45.3. It should be remembered that the provisional rate, based on incomplete data, is likely to be lower than the final rate. Nevertheless, the final infant death rate for 1942 will undoubtedly be the lowest ever recorded for the United States.

[1] *Vital Statistics*—Special Reports, Vol. 17, No. 30 (August 9, 1943). Provisional Natality and Mortality Statistics, United States: 1942. Bureau of the Census, Washington.

Increasing Percentage of Newborn Babies Whose Fathers Are in Military Service

A note published in *The Child* for November 1942 showed that in 29 States, the fathers of 3 percent of the infants for whom birth certificates were filed during May, June, and July 1942 were men in military service. Similar data from 26 States indicate that 12 percent of the infants for whom birth certificates were filed in January, February, and March 1943 were born to wives of men in military service.

In 8 States the percentage was 14 or more. The lowest percentage (7.4) is more than twice that of the average for the earlier period and is only slightly less than the highest proportion shown in the previous tabulation. The group of States for which information was obtained is substantially the same as in the earlier inquiry.

It is possible to analyze the data from 22 States by single months of the first quarter of 1943. For these States, the percentage rose from an average of 11 in January to 12 in March.

In an article in *Hospitals*,[1] Dr. Halbert L. Dunn of the U. S. Bureau of the Census, estimates that the peak of the birth rate for the country has probably been reached, and that the total number of births for 1943 will be about the same as for 1942. However, the number of married men entering the armed forces has been increasing, so that it is not unreasonable to assume that for the country as a whole the number of infants born who have fathers in military service will continue to increase for some time.

[1] Dunn, Halbert L., M. D.: Census Bureau Foresees Drop in Number of Hospital Births. *Hospitals*, Vol. 17, No. 8 (August 1943), p. 46.

The following tabulation shows for each of the 26 States the percentage of babies born whose fathers were recorded as soldiers, sailors, marines, or coastguardsmen:

State	Total births	Infants of men in military service	
		Number	Percent of total
Total, 26 States	287, 833	33, 990	11. 8
Indiana	11, 219	2, 298	20. 5
Washington	9, 210	1, 514	16. 4
Louisiana	13, 909	2, 122	15. 3
Rhode Island	3, 909	564	14. 4
Utah	3, 712	532	14. 3
Delaware	1, 500	211	14. 1
Arizona	3, 701	519	14. 0
New Mexico	2, 920	410	14. 0
Nevada	776	108	13. 9
Wyoming	1, 223	168	13. 7
Georgia	17, 296	2, 360	13. 6
Maine	4, 437	594	13. 4
Nebraska	6, 086	789	13. 0
Missouri	16, 414	2, 028	12. 4
Ohio	33, 061	4, 075	12. 3
Maryland	11, 350	1, 338	11. 8
Mississippi	13, 515	1, 484	11. 0
Illinois	36, 238	3, 953	10. 9
Vermont	1, 574	170	10. 8
Idaho	3, 060	307	10. 0
Wisconsin	15, 608	1, 514	9. 7
North Carolina	23, 788	2, 291	9. 6
North Dakota	3, 201	292	9. 1
Kentucky	17, 015	1, 521	8. 9
Michigan	30, 260	2, 617	8. 6
South Dakota	2, 851	211	7. 4

BOOK NOTES

War and Children, by Anna Freud and Dorothy T. Burlingham. Medical War Books, 227 West Thirteenth St., New York, 1943. 191 pp.

The psychological reactions of young children in England to bombing, to evacuation, and to group life are recorded here by two women who direct three wartime nurseries under the Foster Parents' Plan for War Children. Several extensive case histories are given to enable readers to understand how the authors arrived at their conclusions. Interestingly enough, they found that "the war acquires comparatively little significance so long as it only threatens their lives, disturbs their material comfort, or cuts their food rations. It becomes enormously significant the moment it breaks up family life and uproots the first emotional attachments of the child within the family group. London children, therefore, were on the whole much less upset by bombing than by evacuation to the country as a protection against it."

The authors believe that evacuation could be accomplished without disastrous effects on the children if the change could be led up to gradually so that the children would be acquainted with their surroundings and with the people with whom they were to live before they had to be separated from their parents. Every effort should be made, the authors emphasize, to maintain family ties and memories, especially through frequent visits from the parents.

Our Children Face War, by Anna W. M. Wolf. Houghton Mifflin Co., Boston, Mass. December 1942. 214 pp. $2.

The treatment in this book of the problems of children growing up in a war-torn world should be particularly helpful to the parent who questions the rightness and wrongness of what to teach children about war and about human relationships on a world-wide basis. Doctors, teachers, social workers, and nurses also will find material to interest them. Wives and mothers will find chapter 5, Women and the War, both interesting and thought provoking. The author includes a reading list on current affairs for parents and teachers, together with a list of books on the American scene suitable for children.

The St. Paul Community Project

The project in community organization for the treatment of behavior problems in children, carried on in St. Paul, Minn., by the Children's Bureau since January 1937 with the cooperation of community agencies, has now been brought to a close so far as service is concerned. Analysis of the statistical data collected, evaluation of the program, and preparation of a final report will be completed as soon as possible.

As one direct outgrowth of the program, St. Paul has now established a Coordinating Center for Community Services for Children, under the direction of Alma Laabs, a school social worker assigned by the community to work with the Children's Bureau project staff. Headquarters of the Coordinating Center are in the Wilder Dispensary building and children referred there will be given service by the center staff or channeled to private or community agencies according to need. The schools are continuing to participate by supplying a school social worker. The liaison service set up by the juvenile division of the police department and the welfare agencies of St. Paul in the fall of 1942 has also been placed under the direction of the Coordinating Center.

Development along lines of the project's interests is also seen in a survey of all group-work and recreational facilities throughout the city, initiated in 1942 by the St. Paul Welfare Council. It is hoped that closer collaboration between case-work and group-work services in the city, the need for which is recognized, will result from this survey.

During the 5½ years that the project was in operation about 1,500 persons were registered either for case work or in the group-work program. Individualized service was given to 727 children, with emphasis on early treatment of behavior problems. The average age of children when first referred for treatment fell from 13 years in 1937 to 10 years in 1942. The total attendance at group-work programs during the last 2½ years, when attendance records were kept, was more than 80,000.

BOOK NOTES

From the U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, have been received the first seven leaflets in the School Children and the War series:

No. 1, School Services for Children of Working Mothers (Washington, 1943. 6 pp.).

No. 2, All-Day School Programs for Children of Working Mothers (Washington, 1943. 12 pp.).

No. 3, Nursery Schools Vital to America's War Effort (Washington, 1943. 12 pp.).

No. 4, Food Time—A Good Time at School (Washington, 1943. 13 pp.).

No. 5, Training High-School Students for Wartime Service to Children; suggestions for administrators and teachers (Washington, 1943. 60 pp.).

No. 6, Meeting Children's Emotional Disorders at School (Washington, 1943. 16 pp.).

No. 7, Recreation and Other Activities in the All-Day School Program (Washington, 1943. 39 pp.).

WORKING WITH RURAL YOUTH, by Edmund deS. Brunner. American Council on Education, Washington, 1942. 117 pp. $1.20.

The story of an experiment in marshaling available resources—State, county, and local—to solve some of the problems of rural youth is told in this report. The experiment was conducted by the American Youth Commission in selected areas of a few States with the cooperation of interested Federal and State agencies. Results recorded include the organization of youth councils and the training of youth in specific skills leading to employment and also in leadership.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY DURING THE FIRST WORLD WAR; notes on the British experience, 1914–18, by Edith Abbott. Reprinted for private circulation from *Social Service Review*, Vol. 17, pp. 192–212 (June 1943).

The notes for this article were made and the article was written in the spring of 1919 in London, and it is now published for the first time in the belief that it may be of interest to persons concerned with the social effects of the present war. The figures show that a very grave increase in delinquency took place in 1915 and continued through 1916 and 1917, and that after 1917, although there was some decrease, the number of children brought into court remained above the figures for pre-war years.

THE NEGRO'S SHARE; a study of income, consumption, housing, and public assistance, by Richard Sterner in collaboration with Lenore A. Epstein, Ellen Winston, and others. Harper & Bros., New York, 1943. 433 pp. $4.50.

This monograph is one of a series resulting from a study of the Negro in America, made under the leadership of Dr. Gunnar Myrdal and under the sponsorship of the Carnegie Corporation of New York. It covers occupational and employment trends, family composition, family incomes, family expenditures, food consumption, housing conditions, the Negro on relief, Farm Security Administration, and housing policies. It shows "what the Negro gets from his work and from his economic environment of the good things America has to offer as seen in his housing, standard of living, and social benefits of one kind or another."

Policies for Part-Time Employment of School Youth

In connection with the back-to-school campaign many cities and towns are planning programs for combining school with part-time work for some of their high-school youth. To meet the need for guideposts for the protection of employed students and as the result of a conference of Federal agencies and labor organizations concerned with manpower needs and with the safeguarding of youth employment, a committee of seven was set up to develop a statement of policies and standards for part-time employment of school youth.

The chairman of the committee was C. E. Rakestraw of the Office of Education. Other agencies having members on the committee were the Bureau of Placement, the Bureau of Program Planning and Review, and the Bureau of Training of the War Manpower Commission; the Vocational Division of the United States Office of Education; and the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor. The Children's Bureau was represented by Miss McConnell, Director of the Industrial Division, and Miss Johnson, Assistant Director in Charge of Research. The Bureau called into consultation several members of the General Advisory Committee on Protection of Young Workers and representatives of youth-saving agencies and State labor departments in the development of the recommendations on standards.

Statement of Policies and Standards Governing the Nonagricultural Employment of In-School Urban Youth Under 18 Years of Age

Issued Jointly by the War Manpower Commission; U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency; Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor

The Student Labor Situation

The expansion of personnel in the armed forces and in war production industries has made it necessary, in areas in which a shortage of workers exists, to draw upon sources of labor not customarily used. Included in these new sources of labor are the urban students whose labor services are not generally required in more normal times, except as such urban students have been employed to a limited extent in such activities as the distribution of newspapers, delivery and messenger service, and retail selling.

In many areas thousands of additional high-school students have been drawn into the labor force. In some cases, students have been recruited when adult workers were still available. Some of these students are employed before or after regular school hours and on Saturday. Large numbers of those engaged in after-school and other part-time employment, moreover, are engaged in work for which they are not suited and which, frequently, does not make any particular contribution to the war effort, and often in work under conditions which are detrimental to their health and welfare.

The first obligation of school youth is to take advantage of their educational opportunities in order that they may be better prepared for citizenship and for service to the Nation. Likewise, school authorities, employers, parents, and other interested groups should recognize their obligation to safeguard the welfare and the physical and intellectual development of youth.

In areas in which acute labor shortages exist, as indicated by the War Manpower Commission, it may be necessary to enlist the help of in-school youth for nonagricultural employment. The services of these youth, however, must be utilized in such a way as to insure their effective contribution to manpower needs, the protection of their health, welfare, and educational opportunities, and insofar as possible, the development of their individual abilities and interests.

The War Manpower Commission, the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, and the United States Office of

Education have concurred in the following statement of policies, standards, and principles governing their application.

These have been formulated to safeguard the health and educational development of in-school youth and to assure the most effective utilization of their services in meeting nonagricultural manpower needs.[1]

Basic National Policies

The development and operation of plans for effective utilization of legally employable in-school youth in part-time employment is a responsibility which rests primarily with the local school authority and the local office of the United States Employment Service, War Manpower Commission.[2]

In-school youth should not be included in any employment plan until other sources of labor have been exhausted and employment of youth under such a plan should be curtailed or terminated as other sources of labor become available. Where employment of these youth becomes necessary, the following principles and minimum standards for their part-time employment in nonagricultural occupations should be observed. By part-time employment is meant employment either before or after school, on Saturdays, or during school holidays and vacations, or during school hours when it is possible to adjust school schedules without undue interference with students' progress. These principles and standards are based upon the policies, regulations, and advisory standards of the War Manpower Commission and the Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, for the employment of youth under 18 years of age.

Principles Governing Application of Policies

The following principles should be observed by school authorities in applying the above policies and in the exercise of their responsibilities for the educational development and welfare of students and by the War Manpower Commission in carrying out its responsibilities under Executive Orders Nos. 9139 and 9279.

1. The War Manpower Commission is responsible for determining the over-all manpower needs and for developing programs to meet those needs. When the Area Director of the War Manpower Commission determines that the part-time employment of in-school youth will contribute to meeting the essential manpower needs of a community, he will consult with and make recommendations to the local educational authority concerning the establishment of a student-worker program.

2. The local educational authority will decide, on the basis of such recommendations, and the recommendation of an advisory committee as provided for in paragraph 3, whether a student-worker program for the part-time employment of in-school youth is feasible and should be organized. If such a program is to be organized, the high schools from which students will be drawn should be designated; plans should be approved for in-school organization, including the selection of students, follow-up methods, and records and reports; and the supervisor or coordinator should be selected who will have charge of the program in each school.

3. A local advisory committee composed of designated representatives of business, industry, the press, organized labor, and other groups concerned with the employment and welfare of youth should be appointed by the local school authority. Representatives should be selected from lists of nominees designated by the various organizations in response to requests from the local school authority. The appointments should be mutually acceptable to the local school authority and the local United States Employment Service. Such an advisory committee should be closely related to any over-all committee in the community on children in wartime or on employment of young workers. This committee should serve in an advisory capacity to the operating agencies in connection with plans and matters pertaining to the welfare and development of employed in-school youth and to measures for stimulating participation in needed programs. Measures developed to influence attitudes of youth or their parents toward participation in this program should develop an understanding, through presentation of facts, of the relation of the work they are or might be doing to the war effort. Any appeals should be based on need and should stress the importance of education and the value of education of youth to the war and to the Nation, as well as the importance of the contribution which students can make through employment. In communities where fewer than 50 student workers are likely to be involved there is probably no need for an advisory committee.

4. The plans for an approved student-worker program should be developed jointly by designated representatives of the local school authority and the local United States Employment Service manager, and will provide for the coordination of relationships between the schools and the employment service office.

5. The United States Employment Service will contact employers for the purpose of receiving employer orders, determining job requirements, and working conditions offered. The school representative may follow up students on the job for the purpose of determining the probable effect of the work upon their school progress, health, and well-being.

6. Designated representatives of the local schools will give counseling service to students regarding part-time employment, and will select those students who are interested in and qualified to accept employment under the student-worker plan and will refer

[1] A statement of policy regarding the use of nonfarm youth to meet agricultural manpower needs has been issued. See "Guides to Successful Employment of Nonfarm Youth in Wartime Agriculture," Children's Bureau Publication 290, U. S. Department of Labor, prepared in consultation with U. S. Department of Agriculture, Office of Civilian Defense, Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, and the War Manpower Commission, and approved by these agencies.

[2] The basic national policies to be observed in the development and operation of such plans have been set forth in statements issued by the War Manpower Commission, available in the area offices: "Employment of Youth Under 18 Years of Age," January 30, 1943; "Essential Activities and Occupations" (No. I) and "Placement Priorities" (No. 11), June 24, 1942; "Employment Stabilization Programs," February 1, 1943.

those students to the employment service for placement. Referrals should be accompanied by specific recommendations regarding the type and extent of employment in which students should be placed, their employment qualifications and other prerequisites to successful placement.

7. The designated representative of the local school authority should refer students to employers direct only in accordance with arrangements which have been agreed upon by the United States Employment Service and the school authority.

8. The United States Employment Service will upon request furnish the local school authority with labor-market and occupational information with the understanding that restrictions governing its use will be respected.

Recommended Minimum Standards for Employment of In-School Urban Youth

The minimum standards are presented as a guide to operating agencies and community groups for use in establishing and operating programs for the part-time employment of students. It is suggested that in communities where a program for part-time employment of in-school youth is to be set up the minimum standards which follow be reviewed by the local school authority and the United States Employment Service in consultation with the local advisory committee; that they be adapted if need be to local conditions within the limitation of the War Manpower Commission's Policy on Employment of Youth Under 18 Years of Age;[3] and that they then be incorporated into the local program for selection and placement of in-school youth.

Federal and State Laws.

Child-labor laws, school-attendance requirements, and other regulations embodied in State and Federal laws should be fully observed. The following minimum employment standards should not be construed as warranting any relaxation of State and Federal laws or the lowering of standards embodied in these laws.

Minimum Age.

Students under 14 years of age should not be employed full time or part time as a part of the hired labor force.

Students under 16 years of age should not be employed under the following circumstances:

(a) In any work which would preclude a regular and full school schedule of class work and study; or
(b) In manufacturing occupations.

Plans for employment of students who are 14 and 15 years of age should not be made so long as students of 16 and 17 years are available for the work.

Employment and Age Certificates, Consent of Parent, Physical Fitness.

Students should not be employed without an employment or age certificate, or in case such age certificate is not legally provided for, other reliable proof of age. In all cases there should be written evidence of parental consent. Where a physical examination is not already required for issuance of an employment certificate, the student should be given, wherever possible, a physical examination to determine his fitness to carry the proposed employment in addition to school work.

Hours and Night Work.

Part-time employment should be limited to hours which the student can carry in addition to his school program without detriment to his health or interference with progress in school. The following standards are maximum hours and for many individual students shorter hours will be necessary. In general, students under 18 cannot successfully carry a combined school and work program of more than 8 hours a day.

For students 16 and 17 years of age:

(a) Daily hours of employment should not exceed 4 on school days nor 8 on days when school is not in session. In no case should the combined hours of school and work exceed 9 a day.

(b) Weekly hours of employment should not exceed 28 during weeks when school is in session, nor 48 hours in weeks when schools are not in session.

(c) Evening employment should not extend beyond 10 p. m., and in all cases students should be allowed at least 9 consecutive night hours free from employment.

For students 14 and 15 years of age:

(a) Daily hours of employment should not exceed 3 on school days nor 8 on days when school is not in session. Combined hours of school and work should not exceed 8 a day.

(b) Weekly hours of employment should not exceed 18 during weeks when school is in session, nor 40 hours in weeks when school is not in session.

(c) No employment after the hour of 7 p. m. or before the hour of 7 a. m. should be permitted.

Day of Rest.

One day of rest in 7 should be allowed free from employment.

Hazardous Occupations.

Students should not be placed in any occupation dangerous to life or limb or detrimental to health or well-being. In no case should students under 18 years of age be employed in any occupation defined as hazardous under State or Federal child-labor laws or regulations or by advisory standards, issued under the title "Which Jobs for Young Workers," of the Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor.

[3] See footnote 2, p. 58.

Wages.

Student workers should be compensated at the same wage rates paid adult workers for similar job performance. Wages paid student workers engaged in various occupations should conform to the provisions of Federal and State laws, and in no case should the wages be lower than the minimum set under the Fair Labor Standards Act for the same or comparable work in establishments producing goods for shipment in interstate commerce. In any case wages paid to student workers should be in accordance with any collective bargaining agreement that may be in effect in the establishments in which students are placed.

Other Safeguards.

Adequate meal and rest periods should be allowed and adequate sanitary facilities and safety measures provided.

(Signed) PAUL V. MCNUTT,
Chairman, War Manpower Commission.
J. W. STUDEBAKER,
Commissioner, U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency.
KATHARINE F. LENROOT,
Chief, Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor.

September 3, 1943.

Industrial Injuries to Minors Increasing

By MIRIAM NOLL
Specialist in Accident Statistics, Industrial Division, U. S. Children's Bureau

Although no estimate can be made for the Nation as a whole showing the total number of minors under 18 years of age injured in the course of their employment, the upward trend is unmistakable judging from information based on workmen's compensation cases in various industrial States. Part of the increase is due to the much larger employment of minors, which would naturally reflect itself in soaring accident totals; but a large part is also undoubtedly due to the fact that these youth have higher accident rates in proportion to their number in the working force than have adults.

British experience has demonstrated that youth under 18 years of age have a higher ratio of accidents to the number of workers of the corresponding sex in that age group than have older employees. For the United States no national statistics are available of a comparable nature; but there is considerable evidence that younger workers have a higher accident-frequency rate than adults in comparable occupations.

The inexperience of young workers and also the fact that youth are naturally more irresponsible, more reckless, and less mature in judgment than older people contribute to a high accident rate. Unwise placement of the young worker, failure to observe child-labor laws, inadequate training and supervision, and crowded working conditions also play their role in causing accidents.

Recent information for the States of Illinois, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin indicates an increasingly serious situation.[1]

In Illinois injuries to minors under 18 years reported in 1942 increased by 60 percent over the figure for 1941 and were 3½ times as numerous as in 1940, rising from 282 in 1940 to 624 in 1941 and to 998 in 1942.

In New York State, the number of compensation awards made to minors under 18 years of age in 1942 was 988, a figure that is 58 percent greater than the corresponding number for 1941, and 2¼ times as large as the 1940 figure.

In Wisconsin the number of workmen's compensation cases settled in 1942 that involved minors under 18 years of age increased 135 percent, from 194 cases in 1941 to 456 in 1942.

Ohio reports that the claim checkers of the Ohio Industrial Commission have found "an ever increasing number of accidents to minors in recent months," many of which are ascribed "to indifferent education of the young worker in the hazards of his job, both in vocational schools and in industry, and to failure to insist upon the observance of safety regulations."

From Pennsylvania comes the statement, "Our records show an increase of accidents out of proportion to the number of 16- and 17-year-old children employed."

Injuries to minors who were illegally employed have also shown large increases in New York and Wisconsin, the only States for which recent data on this subject have been published. These States are among those that provide increased compensation for minors injured while illegally employed. In both States the number of increased compensation awards in 1942 to minors injured while illegally employed was twice the number for 1941. This confirms the common observation that violations of child-labor laws have become more widespread during

[1] Care should be taken not to regard the number of workmen's compensation cases in one State as comparable with that in any other State. This is because no two State compensation laws are alike.

the war, and also suggests that such violations frequently result in the placement of minors in occupations that are too hazardous for them.

With the greatly increasing employment of young, inexperienced workers it is more important than ever for employers to develop effective methods of safeguarding them from accidental injury. These youths should be employed in strict compliance with State and Federal child-labor laws and regulations, and placed in occupations that present relatively little danger of accident. Special attention should be given to supervision of young workers, with emphasis on safe practices. Good plant housekeeping and machinery that is well guarded will help make work places safe for these young people. Immediate first-aid treatment of all wounds, however slight, will prevent many injuries from causing disability.

Coverage of all young workers by workmen's compensation insurance should be the aim of State compensation officials and employers alike. Special attention and procedures are necessary for seeing that injured minors receive the benefit of all special provisions for their protection under State compensation laws, such as increased compensation if they are illegally employed and compensation payments based on future earning power if they are permanently disabled.

Work Accidents to Children Employed Illegally

Inspectors of the Children's Bureau and the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions of the United States Department of Labor are finding increasing numbers of children employed in violation of the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. Here are some examples of children whose employment in violation of the protections set up by the Federal act resulted in serious injury or death.

A boy not quite 16 years of age was employed by a lumber company on a truck, helping to load and unload a large metal press used for corrugating metal cornices, which weighed 1,500 pounds. While moving over a bumpy road the top-heavy machine toppled off the truck, knocking him over the side and killing him instantly. This boy's death resulted from his employment as a helper on a motor vehicle contrary to the 18-year minimum age for this work under Hazardous-Occupations Order No. 2 of the Children's Bureau.

A boy 13 years of age was employed, contrary to the 16-year minimum-age provision of the act, as a night watchman at $2 a night, for a 12-hour stretch, 7 nights a week, in a manufacturing plant. As night watchman alone in the plant he was also expected to oil and clean electrically operated machinery, including concrete mixers and a 4-foot roller for shaping wire. One night while he was operating the roller, a large door at the back of the machine interfered with the wire as it was ejected from the back. In attempting to force the heavy door away from the machine the boy braced himself by placing his right toes against the roller. His foot became wedged between the rollers, which began pulling his whole foot in. Attempting to pry his right foot free, he kicked at the roller with his left foot. It, too, was caught and dragged into the machine. Only after the third attempt to pull the switch on the wall was the boy able to turn off the motor, his feet having been drawn into the rollers. Both feet were amputated to the instep.

A 14-year-old boy, employed by a company mixing fertilizers and ginning cotton in their fertilizer plant, was told that he could not continue with the company unless he worked on the delinting machine. One day while he was operating the delinter he was struck in the leg by a part of the machine known as the breast. The blow knocked him into the machine where the saws caught and mangled his left arm and slashed deep into his side. Although the boy called for help, it was too late, and he died as a result of his injuries. For work in such a manufacturing occupation the minimum age is 16 under the Fair Labor Standards Act.

National Child Labor Committee Publications

Especially pertinent in view of the large number of boys and girls engaged in emergency farm programs this summer and the fall campaign of the Children's Bureau for their return to school, are three recent publications of the National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Avenue, New York.

Cotton or School, by Kate Clugston (Publication 387, 1943. 31 pp. 25 cents) presents the perennial problem of child labor in the cotton fields, based on the records of some 4,000 children in Missouri, collected by Charles E. Gibbons shortly before his death. The survey raises questions with respect to school attendance and retardation which concern the whole economy of southern cotton areas and which must be met, if not now, then in the post-war period.

Food: The Little Farmer, the War, and the Future, by Courtenay Dinwiddie (Publication 388, 1943. 12 pp. 10 cents), describes what the Farm Security Administration program has done in bettering conditions for farm families and children and enabling them to increase food production for victory.

Child Manpower—1943, by Gertrude Folks Zimand (Publication 389, 1943. 35 pp. 10 cents) brings together a variety of material on the current child-labor situation—press accounts of accidents to child workers, instances of the illegal employment of children, the utilization of older boys and girls in war work and of school-age children in wartime agriculture, and the question of relaxing child-labor and school-attendance regulations during the emergency.

School for Difficult Children in Colombia

A private school has been opened recently outside Medellín, Colombia, for the training and education of children with language disabilities, disturbances of sense organs, emotional, character, or endocrine disorders, or mental defects.

The school, Instituto Médico Pedagógico de Enseñanza Especial, was created to cooperate with parents, physicians, and teachers in the education of difficult children, and is seeking to establish relations with similar schools and with organizations publishing material on related problems on the American continent.

The technical director of the school, Alejandro Cano H., can be addressed at Instituto Médico Pedagógico de Enseñanza Especial, Apartado Nacional No. 298, Medellín, Colombia.

United States Children's Bureau Publications

The Declaration of Opportunities for Children adopted by the Eighth Pan American Child Congress has now been published in poster form in English, Spanish, Portuguese, and French with the signatures of the President, Vice President, and Secretary General of the Congress and the chairmen of the official delegations of the 20 American Republics shown in facsimile. Copies of the posters in English may be obtained from the Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, Washington, D. C., on request, while the supply lasts.

Because of the demand in South American countries for the Children's Bureau bulletins on Prenatal Care, Infant Care, and The Child From One to Six, the Spanish edition of these bulletins is being reprinted.

Free School Lunches in the Dominican Republic

A special committee of women, headed by Señora Dona Carmita Landestoy, was recently organized in the Dominican Republic to provide free lunches for school children from families of low income.

The work of this committee, which cooperates with the Government in its social-welfare program, is aided by the proceeds of a tax on admissions to public entertainments. The proceeds of the tax, which was put in effect by a law of March 11, 1943, are turned over by the local authorities to special "depository boards for school-lunch funds" (juntas depositorias de los fondos pro-desayuno escolar).

Lunches were served in April 1943 to more than 1,000 children daily in 20 cities or towns; several other localities also have school-lunch programs. In addition, members of a committee of visitors give talks on personal hygiene, nutrition, and home management; measures are taken for community betterment, and in some cases aid is given to individual children.

Prédica y Acción, Ciudad Trujillo, May 30, 1943; and Gaceta Oficial, Ciudad Trujillo, No. 5889, March 19, 1943.

Cuban Publication on Prenatal and Infant Care

A pamphlet "Lo que debe saber una madre" (What a Mother Should Know) was published in February 1943 in Habana, Cuba, by the Clínica de Maternidad Obrera (Clinic for Working Mothers) of that city.

The 30-page illustrated pamphlet, prepared by Dr. Alfredo Comas Calero, director of the clinic, in cooperation with physicians and laymen, gives instructions on the health and personal hygiene of the expectant mother, including her employment outside the home, domestic work, exercise, travel, recreation, clothing, and food. The expenses in connection with pregnancy and childbirth are discussed.

Advice is given on the baby's feeding, room, crib, clothing, bathing, and on care of his mouth, eyes, ears, and nails. Sun baths, dentition, and habit formation are among the subjects discussed. The importance of registering the child's birth is emphasized. An appeal is made to the father to help the mother in caring for the baby.

First Pan American Physical Education Congress

The first Pan American Physical Education Congress took place in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil,

July 19 to July 31, 1943, and adopted 21 resolutions in regard to the provision of physical education for boys and for girls in the schools and elsewhere by qualified instructors under medical supervision, and the keeping of medical records. The needs of Indians, persons living in high altitudes, and handicapped persons received special consideration.

The Pan American Congress of Physical Education was set up on a permanent basis with a secretariat in Peru under the auspices of the Department of Physical Education of Peru. It was agreed to hold the next Congress in Mexico City in 1945. Two unofficial observers from the United States attended the Congress.

FOREIGN NOTES

British Conference on Maternity and Child Welfare

Between 500 and 600 persons representing organizations and authorities concerned with maternal and child health attended the National Conference on Maternity and Child Welfare held in London on July 8 and 9, as reported in *Mother and Child* (London) for August 1943. The conference was arranged by the National Association of Maternity and Child Welfare Centers.

The Rt. Hon. Ernest Brown, Minister of Health, was the president of the conference. In his presidential address he stated that the infant mortality rate for 1942 (49 per 1,000 live births) was the lowest on record for England. The maternal mortality rate also fell to the record low figure of 2.47 per 1,000 live births. The shortage of midwives and also of maternity beds in hospitals is causing some concern, nevertheless it is the exception rather than the rule when a mother is discharged from the hospital as early as the tenth day after delivery.

Special arrangements have been made, Mr. Brown said, to deal with the cases of unmarried mothers needing Government protection but "for the children of these and other unmarried mothers there is no ideal solution since every child needs a normal home and a father and mother."

In regard to wartime nurseries for war workers' children, Mr. Brown said that most of the 1,300 nurseries now in operation accept very young babies if their mothers are at work, and that some of the nurseries operate at night as well as by day.

Dr. Stella Churchill, chairman of the conference, gave an address on changing methods of child care. Other subjects under discussion at the conference were nursery life and family life, and the functions of maternity and child-welfare personnel.

Adoption of Children (Regulation) Act in Effect in England

Because of the special need in wartime for the provisions of the Adoption of Children (Regulation) Act, 1939, it was finally put into operation on June 1, 1943, in spite of the additional work which it imposes on the authorities. The act, summarized in *The Child* for December 1939 (p. 147), was originally planned to become effective January 1, 1940; the effective date was postponed by the outbreak of the war. The act provides for the supervision of children placed informally for adoption (by persons other than their parents) by the child-welfare visitors, and for registration and record-keeping of such placements through the welfare authorities.

Medical Officer (London), Vol. 69, p. 100 (March 27, 1943), and Mother and Child (London), Vol. 14, No. 5, August 1943.

Increased Maternity Allowances in Australia

The Maternity Allowance Act of 1912, amended in 1942, was again amended in 1943. The 1943 amendment abolishes the means test and increases the rates of the maternity allowance, payable as a lump sum on the birth of each child, to the following amounts: for the first child, £5; for the second or third child, £6; for the fourth and each subsequent child, 7£ 10s. (An Australian pound is about $3.23 and a shilling about 16 cents, according to the rate of exchange in 1943.) In addition, under the amendment the mother also receives a benefit consisting of an allowance of 25s. a week for the 4 weeks before and the 4 weeks after the birth of the child.

International Labour Review, August 1943, p. 251.

• EVENTS OF CURRENT INTEREST •

Death of Courtenay Dinwiddie

A lifetime devoted to making this country a better place for children was cut short by the death in New York on September 13, 1943, of Courtenay Dinwiddie, general secretary of the National Child Labor Committee.

Mr. Dinwiddie, who was in the sixty-first year of his age, had been general secretary of the National Child Labor Committee since 1930 and in that capacity had participated in the White House Conferences of 1930 and 1940, serving as a member of the Planning Committee of the 1940 White House Conference on Children in a Democracy. He was a member of the Children's Bureau General Advisory Committee on Protection of Young Workers, which has worked closely with the Bureau in developing standards to safeguard young workers in wartime.

Mr. Dinwiddie's interest in protecting children from harmful child labor and in improving the conditions under which young people are employed stemmed from his active concern with everything that affects the health, education, and welfare of youth—a concern that continued throughout his life.

At the time when he came to the National Child Labor Committee Mr. Dinwiddie was serving as consultant in child hygiene for the New York City Health Department, and for several years preceding that time he was director of the child-health program of the Commonwealth Fund. His book, Child Health and the Community, grew out of this experience. Earlier, Mr. Dinwiddie served as director of the American Child Health Association, as executive secretary of the National Child Health Council, and as superintendent of the Cincinnati Anti-Tuberculosis League.

Mr. Dinwiddie was born in Alexandria, Va., was graduated from Southwestern University, and did postgraduate work at the University of Virginia. At the time of his death he resided in Irvington, N. Y., and was a member of the executive committee of the Westchester Tuberculosis and Public Health Association. He was also a member of the American Academy of Political and Social Science and of the National Society for the Study of Education.

Seeing in every child a life as precious as that of his own son, his own daughter, Courtenay Dinwiddie held always with a firmness as gentle as it was adamant to the standard of providing for each child the opportunity for developing his highest capacities. In these days of tremendous wartime pressure, when serious breakdown of legal safeguards for child workers is threatened, a man of Mr. Dinwiddie's ideals and action can ill be spared. To everyone who shared with him the belief that the welfare of children is a first obligation on the citizens of a democracy, there remains added responsibility for carrying on his interrupted work.

—Katharine F. Lenroot.

CONFERENCE CALENDAR

Oct. 22–25—Tenth biennial meeting of the National Association for Nursery Education, Boston. Theme: The community serves the child in war and peace. For information write to Room 10069, 1 Madison Avenue, New York.

Nov. 7–13—American Education Week. Twenty-third annual observance. Theme: Education for Victory.

Nov. 12–20—Children's Book Week. Twenty-fifth annual observance. Theme: Build the future with books. Headquarters: 69 West Forty-fifth Street, New York.

Nov. 16–18—Southern Medical Association. Thirty-seventh annual meeting, Cincinnati. Permanent headquarters: Empire Building, Birmingham, Ala.

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THE CHILD

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Vol. 8 November 1943 No. 5

In This Issue . . .

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Effect of The War on Child-Labor Legislation During 1943

NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON STATE RHEUMATIC-FEVER PROGRAMS

UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
CHILDREN'S BUREAU

U. S. SUPERINTENDENT OF DOCUMENTS
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THE CHILD

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The Children's Bureau does not necessarily assume responsibility for the statements or opinions of contributors not connected with the Bureau.

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UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY

CHILDREN'S BUREAU
KATHARINE F. LENROOT, CHIEF

WE ARE fighting again for human freedom and especially for the future of our children in a free world. Children must be safeguarded—and they can be safeguarded—in the midst of this total war so that they can live and share in that future.—*A Children's Charter in Wartime.*

• YOUNG WORKERS IN WARTIME •

Telegraph Company Held Subject to Child-Labor Provisions of Fair Labor Standards Act

In the most important decision yet handed down interpreting the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, the United States District Court for the Southern District of New York ruled on October 7, 1943, that the Western Union Telegraph Co. had violated those provisions by employing minors under 16 years of age as telegraph messengers and minors under 18 years of age as motor-vehicle operators. The court granted an injunction restraining the company from continuing its violations of the act.

The evidence in the case showed that Western Union has been employing oppressive child labor, consisting of (1) employment of minors under 16 years of age as telegraph messengers, since January 1, 1941, and (2) employment of minors between 16 and 18 years of age as motor-vehicle operators contrary to the provisions of Hazardous Occupations Order No. 2, since January 1, 1942.

In August 1942 the Chief of the Children's Bureau filed a complaint in the District Court of the United States for the Southern District of New York, in which Western Union's principal office is located, seeking to enjoin the company from continuing to violate the act. The company admitted the employment of oppressive child labor but denied that it was subject to the child-labor provisions of the act. The company made two principal contentions in support of its position that it was not subject to the act: (1) That those provisions were limited to companies producing goods of a tangible character and did not include the "production" of intangible matters such as telegraph messages; and (2) that in any event Western Union does not produce the messages which it transmits but merely conveys the ideas of its customers.

In rejecting the company's contention that the Federal child-labor law is limited to establishments producing items of a tangible character, the court pointed to the fact that Congress had granted a specific exemption from the law for the employment of minors in theatrical productions. Since a similar exemption was not granted to telegraph messengers, the court concluded that it was the intention of Congress to prohibit the employment of under-age minors as telegraph messengers. In so doing, the court stated that it was taking "judicial notice of the fact that for a generation or more the employment of young messengers by the telegraph companies in the United States has been open and notorious."

After finding that the telegraph messages transmitted by the defendant were "goods" within the meaning of that term, as it is used in the act, the court concluded that such messages were produced by Western Union. In reaching this conclusion, the court stated:

> Once we reach the conclusion that the messages telegraphed by defendant are goods within the meaning of the statute, there is not much difficulty in finding that these goods are produced in the defendant's establishments. Clearly they are "handled" and "worked on." In the light of the statutory definition, the argument that the defendant simply transmits the ideas of its customers and that it is not a producer, must fall as a matter of law. It falls also as a matter of fact, for it is the work of the defendant which transmutes the ideas of the customers into telegraphic messages by means of a series of changes and processes already described.

Referring to the fact that the word "ship" rather than the word "transmit" is used in the child-labor provisions of the act, Judge Rifkind determined that for the purposes of the statute the words are synonymous. He said:

> I do not think that Congress intended to limit the the application of the act to the conventional modes of shipment. Its broad policy was to keep the streams of interstate commerce undefiled by the products of child labor. It is a remedial statute entitled to liberal interpretation. *Missel v. Overnight Motor Transportation Co.*, C. C. A. 4, 1942, 126 Fed. (2d) 98, 103, affirmed, 316 U. S. 572. One cannot escape the prohibition of the statute by inventing a magic carpet.

In upholding the applicability of the law to Western Union, Judge Rifkind promoted to the century-old struggle in this country to achieve Federal control over the employment of child labor and referred to the previous attempts of Congress to abolish oppressive child labor through the first and second Federal child-labor laws and through the proposed child-labor amendment to the Constitution. He declared:

> The history of the statute is consistent only with the conclusion that Congress intended to keep the arteries of commerce free from pollution by the sweat of child labor. To accomplish this result with the least difficulty, the law prohibited the introduction into the streams of commerce, not only of the products of child labor *but of all of the products of an establishment where any child labor* had been employed within 30 days.

The court concluded:

> Since I have found that, within the meaning of the child-labor provisions of the act, the defendant is a producer engaged in shipping, in commerce, goods produced in establishments where oppressive child labor is employed, I must conclude that the defendant is violating the statute.

Home Work Restricted in the Embroideries Industry

Another milestone toward the elimination of industrial home work was passed recently when the Administrator of the United States Department of Labor's Wage and Hour Division issued a wage order for the embroideries industry, which contains terms and conditions restricting the employment of industrial home workers. Effective November 15, 1943, no industrial embroidery work may be performed at home except by persons who are unable to adjust to factory work because of age, physical or mental disability, or the need to care for an invalid in the home, or who are employed under the supervision of a State vocational-rehabilitation agency or in a "sheltered workshop" for the handicapped. Except for persons in this latter group, the applicant for a special home-work certificate must have been a home worker prior to November 2, 1942, although this provision may be waived if it results in unusual hardship to the individual.

Restriction of industrial home work in the embroideries industry is of particular importance to persons concerned with the welfare of children, for child labor has long been associated with home work in this industry. In inspections made under the Fair Labor Standards Act children were found working illegally on various operations, including cutting and trimming lace, hand embroidery, hand-sewing, smocking, cutting appliqués, threading beads for crochet beading, folding, and pinning. These inspections have shown not only that child labor is cheap labor, presenting a serious threat to the enforcement of the established minimum wage rate, but also that child-labor laws cannot be effectively enforced in the home.

The embroideries industry is the seventh industry in which regulations limiting and restricting industrial home work have been issued by the Administrator in order to safeguard the minimum-wage rates, established under wage orders; the other six covering the manufacture of jewelry, gloves and mittens, knitted outerwear, apparel, buttons and buckles, and handkerchiefs.

NEWS NOTES

In commenting on one of the series of pamphlets issued by the Children's Bureau giving advisory standards for young workers in hazardous occupations, the personnel manager of a western shipbuilding company states:

> . . . in regard to Bulletin No. 2, Advisory Standards for Shipbuilding, our company has followed the suggestions as explained and find that if adhered to, working conditions for young workers are very satisfactory and the ratio of accidents is practically zero . . . .
>
> The only suggestion we have to make is that when bulletins of this nature are supplied to the various companies, a sufficient number be forwarded so that the various foremen, leadmen, and department heads will have a copy to follow.

Three publications received from the Division of Labor Standards, U. S. Department of Labor, deal with questions of industrial safety, a subject of special concern in connection with the increased employment of minors:

> Reducing Casualties on the Production Front (Special Bulletin No. 8, 1942. 6 pp.).
>
> Safety Speeds Production; a message for supervisors (Special Bulletin No. 10, 1943. 21 pp.).
>
> A Guide to the Prevention of Weight-Lifting Injuries (Special Bulletin No. 11, 1943. 19 pp.).

The Effect of the War on Child-Labor Legislation During 1943

The legislative year 1943 has been marked by widespread efforts to lower child-labor standards—efforts that seriously threaten the protective child-labor measures that have been built up over the past quarter century. Simultaneously with the withdrawal of millions of men from the normal labor force for military service there has been a vast expansion of production. These conditions have not only opened up unlimited opportunities for youthful, inexperienced workers, but have brought about an unprecedented demand for such workers to supply manpower needs and have resulted in pressures intended to lessen restrictions on such employment.

During this year, 44 legislatures met in regular session. Not only were many measures introduced to relax or otherwise modify laws for the protection of young workers, but State and Federal administrators, particularly those having some discretionary authority under child-labor laws, were confronted with increasing requests to lower existing standards and, at the same time, with increasing violations of legal requirements. Sixty-two acts affecting the employment of minors were passed in 27 States. Of these 62 acts, 54 included some backward steps; of these, 40 were limited to the war period. In addition, 2 of these States and 1 other State issued a total of 15 administrative orders or rulings, 14 of which brought about relaxations.

Entire Field of Child Labor Affected.

These relaxations have not applied chiefly to legislation affecting specialized fields of employment, as seemed to be the trend last year, but have affected the entire field of child-labor legislation. It is significant also that in 1943 they have affected standards applying to children under 16 years of age, as well as minors 16 and 17 years of age, thus reversing the legislative tendency, evident in certain States in 1942, toward restricting wartime exemptions from labor standards to persons 18 years of age or over. As in the years 1941 and 1942, compulsory school-attendance requirements, which complement child-labor laws, have been modified, but to a greater degree than previously, particularly insofar as they interfere with the employment of children on farms. Moreover, although bills to improve child-labor or compulsory school-attendance laws were proposed in over a third of the States having legislative sessions, only a few forward steps were taken.

Advances Occur in Five States.

Of the few advances in State legislation relating to child labor and compulsory school attendance during 1943, the most significant occurred in Florida, Illinois, Maine, Maryland, and New Jersey. As will be pointed out later, the advances made by three of these States were accompanied by retrogressions in other respects. Florida widened the occupational coverage of its employment-certificate requirements and strengthened its night-work prohibition for children engaged in certain street trades. Maryland for the first time provided by law for the issuance of certificates of age for minors 16 years of age and over upon request, thus making mandatory upon issuing officers the former optional practice. New Jersey provided that for the duration of the war public-school education shall be free to nonresident children of school age who are engaged in farm work in that State or whose parents are engaged in such work. Maine and Illinois strengthened their requirements for compulsory school attendance.

As was pointed out, the relaxations that have occurred affecting the employment of children under 16 years of age relate not only to specialized fields of employment, but to the general field. Moreover, even minimum-age and night-work standards have been lowered. The modifications affecting minors 16 and 17 years of age have, for the most part, suspended or lowered the minimum age for employment in hazardous occupations, weakened night-work restrictions, or lengthened maximum hours of work.

Nine States passed legislation affecting the employment of children in farm work, all but one of these acts being limited to the war period or to a period ending in 1944 or 1945. Seven of these States permitted absence from school for work on farms. One additional State, Pennsylvania, relaxed its standards for the release of children from school for farm work; one other

State, Kansas, lowered standards for work in hazardous occupations in agriculture.

Of the seven States that permit absence from school for farm work, two—New York and New Jersey—amended laws passed in 1942 that authorized, under certain conditions, the release of minors 14 years of age or over from school for farm work for limited periods. The operation of the New York act of 1942 was extended to July 1, 1944. The act was also amended to authorize the release of minors for work in canneries and in greenhouses, but at the time of signing the bill the Governor indicated that this provision was not intended to apply to minors under 16. The New Jersey act of 1942 was amended to extend the period of time during which the 15-day release from school that it permits may be granted, and to place on the county superintendents of schools responsibility for recruiting students for farm labor and on the county extension agents the responsibility for their placement. Connecticut, Indiana, North Carolina, Utah, and West Virginia also passed acts authorizing the release of children from school for work in agriculture, either individually or by classes or schools. In Indiana and Connecticut the pupils, if released individually, must have reached the age of 14, but in the other three States no minimum age is specified. In Utah and Indiana releases from school are permitted for processing agricultural products as well as for farm work.

Special Work Permits Authorized in Pennsylvania.

In Pennsylvania the district boards of school directors or boards of public education were authorized, under certain conditions, to put into effect various temporary emergency war provisions, including the granting of special "farm and conservation employment permits" to 14-year-old children who have completed the sixth grade or its equivalent. Before such special permits may be issued, however, the board must find, and record on the minutes of a regular or special meeting, that normal operation of the provisions of the school law for the release of children for farm work interferes with the prosecution of the war and must certify such fact to the State department of public instruction. Kansas specifically exempted agricultural, livestock, dairying, and horticultural pursuits from the provision prohibiting employment of children under 16 in dangerous places or occupations.

Legislation lowering employment standards for work in bowling alleys, usually only for pin setters, was enacted in Delaware, New Mexico, Pennsylvania, Utah, and West Virginia, and also in Indiana, but the Indiana legislation, under an opinion by the State attorney general, has been ruled invalid. This legislation was limited to the war period in only three of these States. In Indiana, New Mexico, and Utah a minimum age of 16 was formerly established for this work, while in Pennsylvania and West Virginia child-labor laws set 18 as the minimum age. Except in West Virginia, where the 1943 amendment is interpreted as setting a 16-year minimum age, children as young as 14 are now permitted to work as pin boys in bowling alleys, although according to information received by the Children's Bureau, in only two of these States may minors under 16 work at night.

Other Backward Steps.

State legal standards affecting the employment of children under 16 in occupations other than on farms and in bowling alleys were also lowered in a number of States—Delaware, Florida, Maryland, New Mexico, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin being included among the States taking such action. Some of these backward steps were limited to the war period. In Delaware children as young as 14 are now permitted to work up to midnight and as early as 5 a. m. on and from any vehicle delivering milk—an occupation involving definite accident hazards. Florida reduced from 16 to 14 the minimum age for nonfactory employment during school hours and set a minimum age of 12 for such work outside school hours, and also eliminated certain occupations, including operation of elevators, from the list of hazardous occupations formerly prohibited for minors under 18. This action reduced the minimum age in some of these occupations to 14 or even 12 for work outside school hours. Maryland repealed its provision for a 14-year minimum age for employment in any business or service during school hours, on the assumption that this is superseded by the law setting a minimum age of 14 in establishments enumerated in the law.

New Mexico, which formerly had a night-work prohibition against the employment of minors under 16 years of age between 7 p. m. and 7 a. m., now provides that certificates may be issued permitting employment of such minors during these hours. This State also eliminated its 21-year minimum age for girls as messengers; this results in a minimum age of 14 for such work during school hours, and no prohibition outside school hours. Pennsylvania amended its employment-certificate provision to permit acceptance of a certificate of physical fitness from any licensed physician instead of only from a physician appointed for this purpose by a board

of school directors or, in certain instances, by the State department of health.

Age Lowered for House-to-House Street Trading.

Wisconsin authorized the State industrial commission to issue permits to boys as young as 12 years of age, instead of 13, for house-to-house street trading in residential districts. In addition, by administrative ruling, under the child-labor law, minors 14 and 15 may work until 8 p. m. instead of 6 p. m., and the minimum age for employment of boys as telegraph messengers has been reduced from 16 to 14. In this State also, on account of the great pressure on its certificate-issuing officers, an act was passed providing that a fee not exceeding 25 cents may be collected for the issuance of each child-labor permit.

Maximum Age for Work in Hazardous Occupations Reduced.

The States that passed laws concerning hazardous occupations for minors of 16 and 17 years include Florida, which reduced from 18 to 16 the minimum age for employment in a considerable number of hazardous occupations; Nebraska, which lowered from 21 to 16 the minimum age for employment as drivers of trucks transporting certain fuels—this act to be in effect until March 1, 1945;[1] and Utah, which for the war period, or until April 1, 1945, allows females 16 years of age and over to work in smelters and "at mines in other than underground work," employments formerly prohibited for all females.

In addition, by administrative ruling effective during the war emergency, Pennsylvania permitted employment, under certain conditions, of minors of 16 and 17 years in a few of the occupations heretofore prohibited for minors under 18. The occupations permitted at 16 years of age are: Helpers in rolling mills at work not directly at the rolls (boys only), helpers adjacent to furnaces of the metal industries (boys only), tack welders, and workers at wire-stitching machines under proper supervision. In Wisconsin to meet the war-emergency manpower shortage the industrial commission, under authority granted by the child-labor law, modified the 18-year minimum-age requirement to permit 10 named railways to employ boys of 16 and 17 to work at track repairing and to work as car checkers and messengers in or about docks. In addition it lowered from 18 to 16 the minimum age for employment in shipbuilding, in the operation of certain lifts and hoisting machines, as members of threshing crews, and for work in hotels and restaurants under certain conditions. The employment of girls as telephone and telegraph messengers, heretofore prohibited before the age of 18, is permitted at 16 between the hours of 6 a. m. and 6 p. m., but not for more than 8 hours a day, 48 hours a week, or 6 days a week.

Fifteen States Lower Hours-of-Work Standards.

In 15 States standards regarding maximum hours, length of meal periods, or night work for minors 16 and 17 years of age have been lowered, or authority for such lowering has been granted. These States are: Arkansas, Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, Maine, New Hampshire, New Jersey, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Texas, Vermont, Wisconsin, and Wyoming. In some of these States the relaxation affects girls only and results from a modification of standards established for all females. Most of these are effective for the war period only.

Girls 16 and 17 in Indiana May Work Until 7 p. m.

The more important of these relaxations from the point in view of child labor are as follows: Indiana permits girls 16 and 17 years of age to work until 10 p. m. instead of 7 p. m., except in occupations determined by the State commissioner of labor to be hazardous. The New Jersey act authorizes lengthening the maximum working hours for minors 16 and 17 years of age from an 8-hour day and 40-hour week to a 10-hour day and 48-hour week, if the employer is engaged in production or processing of materials essential to the war effort and has received permission from the State commissioner of labor. This permission is granted only after recommendation by a special emergency committee on child labor appointed by the commissioner and it may not be granted for employment of minors under 17 unless the supply of employees 17 years of age or over is inadequate to meet emergency conditions. In canneries minors of 16 and 17 years may work for these hours and up to 11 p. m. during specified months without this special permission.

Some Restrictions on Maximum Hours Eliminated.

Ohio has eliminated all restrictions on maximum hours for boys 16 and 17 years of age. It has also relaxed the limitations for girls 16 to 21, lengthening the maximum 8-hour day and 48-hour week to permit a 10-hour day and 50-hour week, with exemptions. In addition, restrictions on night work have been entirely eliminated for boys of 16 and 17; and they have been relaxed for girls of 16 and 17 so that employment is now prohibited only from 11 p. m. to

[1] Laws lowering minimum ages for obtaining licenses for driving trucks or other motor vehicles are not included in this summary.

6 a. m., instead of from 6 p. m. to 7 a. m. For employment in canneries, all restrictions with regard to hours and night work have been eliminated for minors 16 and over.

In Pennsylvania the State secretary of labor and industry is empowered to authorize, on application of an employer and with the approval of the industrial board, employment up to 10 hours a day and 48 hours a week instead of 8 a day and 44 a week, of minors 16 and 17 who are engaged directly or indirectly in furtherance of the war effort. As a result of an amendment to "the women's hours law," the department of labor and industry, with the approval of the industrial board, may suspend the provision prohibiting work after 9 p. m. for girls between 16 and 21 years of age if strict application of this provision interferes with the war effort. Under this authority the industrial board permits girls 16 and 17 years of age to work only until 10 p. m. except in special cases. Wisconsin by administrative action relaxed a night-work restriction applying to the employment of boys as public messengers in certain cities to permit boys 16 and 17 years of age to work until midnight.

Emergency Wartime Legislation Relaxes Standards.

Six States passed legislation giving general authority for reductions in labor standards under certain conditions. In three of these States—California, Massachusetts, and New York—emergency war legislation has been enacted that specifically permits employment sstandard for minors to be relaxed. California adopted a Minors Emergency War Employment Act, under which the Governor may issue war production permits authorizing the employment of minors for such hours and at such types of work and under such conditions as may be helpful in increasing production. Specific safeguarding policies to govern the issuance of these permits have been set up by the State department of industrial relations. Massachusetts authorized the commissioner of labor and industries to suspend the application of any provision of the child-labor law when such suspension is necessary in order to supply deficiencies in manpower due to the war. New York amended its 1942 War Emergency Act so as to lower from 18 to 16 the minimum age at which dispensations from restrictions set by labor legislation may be granted to employers and also extending coverage of the act to include employers engaged in essential civilian activities. In Connecticut, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania, the Governor was granted broad war-emergency powers, including authority to relax labor standards, which may affect minor workers. In North Carolina and Pennsylvania this authority is restricted to periods when the legislature is not in session.

No New Federal Legislation.

In the field of Federal child-labor standards, no new legislation was enacted during the year. However, wartime modifications were made in certain administrative orders and regulations under the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938.

Two amendments, both applying to essential seasonal industries, limited to the duration of the war, and providing for special employment safeguards, were made by the Children's Bureau to Regulation No. 3, after public hearing and on recommendation of the War Manpower Commission. This regulation, issued under authority of the act, sets the conditions under which children 14 and 15 years of age may be employed in nonmanufacturing and nonmining occupations, such employment being permitted only during periods that do not interfere with schooling and under conditions that do not interfere with health or well-being. The first amendment applies only to packing sheds where perishable fresh fruits and vegetables are packed and is limited to 8 workweeks in a calendar year. For this period it changes from 7 p. m. to 10 p. m. the evening hour up to which children of 14 and 15 may be employed in these establishments, but only on days when school is not in session. The second amendment permits employment of minors 14 and 15 years of age outside school hours in heading and peeling shrimp for shipment as fresh raw or fresh frozen shrimp and allows such employment up to 8 p. m. The work of children 14 and 15 permitted to be employed under these amendments is limited not only to the maximum hours provided by Regulation No. 3 but to 6 days in any 1 week; a 45-minute lunch period must also be given, and adequate sanitary facilities must be provided. If children work in packing sheds after 7 p. m., records must be kept by employers of their names and addresses and the workweeks in which they are employed.

Amendments were also made during the year to Hazardous Occupations Orders No. 1 and No. 4, relating to occupations in or about plants manufacturing explosives and to logging occupations. The amendment to Order No. 1 opens to minors of 16 and 17 employment in small-arms ammunition plants in occupations not involving exposure to explosives. This amendment was deemed desirable because increased employment created many available

jobs in this industry that did not subject the workers to the danger of explosives and in which 16- and 17-year-old minors might be employed.

The amendment to Order No. 4, occasioned by acute labor shortages due to the war, permits, for the duration of the war, the employment of 16- and 17-year-old minors in certain auxiliary logging occupations, such as work on repair and maintenance of roads and railroads, work as fire watcher, and the like. These are the least hazardous occupations covered by this order. It does not lower the minimum age for any work in logging proper such as the felling of trees or the transportation of logs.

In spite of these relaxations, a few efforts to hold existing legal protection and to minimize the departures permitted from former safeguards were successful during the year. The serious inroads on child-labor standards that have actually been made, however, are of particular concern in view of the widening arc of child-labor legislation that has been affected. Even though some of the modifications may have been justified in the light of prevailing labor needs and of existing high standards, much of the action seems to have been taken without weighing the cost to children and to the Nation against the gain to the labor market. Also, in some cases the relaxation has not been limited to the war period, nor has machinery been provided to safeguard the modification. These trends give warning of danger of permanent loss to the Nation through denial of adequate child-labor protection and educational opportunity for its youth.

NOTE.—Legislative references on which this article is based can be obtained from the Children's Bureau on request.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C

New York Program for Wartime Education and Employment of 16- and 17-Year-Old Youth

The State Education Department of New York has recently (August 2, 1943) issued recommendations with regard to the industrial recruitment of high-school pupils in war-affected cities. These recommendations developed out of a survey and recommendations made by a committee of school superintendents appointed by the State education department after a conference with the Associated Industries of New York State.

Although fitting particularly into the pattern of the New York child-labor law, which sets a 16-year minimum age for factory work and for employment during school hours, these recommendations provide a helpful basis for working out similar problems faced by other States.

In submitting the proposals that are embodied in the department's recommendations, the committee of school superintendents stated that it had been mindful of the needs of the future as well as the emergency.

In issuing its recommendations, the State education department said:

* * * From the long-range point of view, we hold that a failure to achieve high-school graduation is a cultural and vocational calamity for the large majority of boys and girls. Since there is no evidence that only the lower ranges of talent have been employed, we may assume that some thousands of able boys and girls are carrying on war work far below their technical and intellectual capacities. When the war ends, these boys and girls will be in a glutted labor market, and very likely without strong incentives to resume their high-school work. * * *

The recommendations of the department are as follows:

1. That for the standard employment certificate [1] as hitherto understood, there be substituted a permit to work on school-released time.

These permits would apply to all nongraduates up to the age of 18. (When necessary, exceptions would be made for the physically or mentally handicapped.) The burden of proof would be placed on the school authorities for the relinquishment of children below the age of 18.

The options would be these:

a. Full-time schooling up to age 18, or to high-school graduation.

[1] That is, a certificate permitting the minor to leave regular school for full-time employment.

b. For 16- and 17-year-olds, the alternatives of a full-time school or a part-time school under various cooperative arrangements for outside work, as indicated in "(5)" below.

c. The assignment of the pupil to special institutions or curricular programs in cases of mental or other handicap.

It should be noted that the plan outlined above will require amendments to the education and labor laws.

2. That in every school pupils be expected to declare in advance their intent to apply for a work permit, in order that appropriate advisory and counseling service, to include the parents, may be arranged.

3. That school authorities, except in cases of extreme hardship, take steps to eliminate any leniency that may have developed in the enforcement of the present law, which calls for the personal appearance of the parent when school leaving is contemplated.

4. That, where feasible, large cities decentralize the issuing of work permits by having them issued at the pupil's own high school.

In no sense, is this a perfunctory, clerical task. A real guidance service should be rendered to pupils who are considering outside work. If it is truly necessary for them to seek employment, then the guidance officer should give assistance in accordance with their interests, aptitude, and abilities.

Under the present statute a superintendent of schools signs both the pupil's employment certificate and the vacation work permit. He also has the right under regulations of the commissioner of education to delegate that authority. There is no objection to this, provided the commissioner's rules specify that the high-school principal or guidance officer is authorized to sign the permit. An authentic document is needed, for it may subsequently come under the scrutiny of labor authorities.

5. That, for 16- and 17-year-olds who have not completed a high-school curriculum, the law should establish that pupils may be released from school only for part-time work, as follows:

a. Through cooperative arrangements for a group of pupils, wherein an equal number of weeks is spent in school and in employment (alternately), and the employment has educational value, being part of a regularly planned and supervised program. This program is feasible only in the larger schools, where separate sections of a class are organized.

To encourage the development of programs of this type, there should be a proportionate allotment of State aid in behalf of time spent in employment which is deemed educational in character. This requires new legislation.

b. Individual arrangements guaranteeing 15 or 20 hours of school and not over 24 hours of employment weekly, with pupils released from school at noon or thereafter and with employment spread over 6 days.

Since a 44-hour week (together with outside preparation for lessons) is heavy, the work program of 24 hours should constitute a maximum; it should be approved only for pupils capable of carrying this load. The recommendation is made in view of the fact that some young people are now carrying excessive school and employment schedules. Unless school hours are shortened, more pupils may leave school altogether, to their personal detriment and ultimately to that of the country.

The cooperative arrangement is generally feasible only for pupils whose school programs are substantially identical, as in the various types of vocational curriculums. The reduction of school time may be justified in cases where the employment has educational significance and is part of a regularly planned and supervised program. In general, similar conditions in the school program and in the educationally organized work experience indicate the possibility of cooperative groups. An example of this would be the State and Federal apprentice-training program at present available for 16- and 17-year-old youth.

In cases where individual arrangements are made for part-time programs, pupils, starting early, could be excused daily at noon, or at such time thereafter as would best meet their school and work programs. This would mean some sacrifice of the pupil's educational experience. It would meet the need of employers in stores and business houses where peak loads come later in the day. Where school arrangements for late-afternoon instruction can be made, the released time might come in the morning.

It is the judgment of the school authorities that group arrangements, other than those listed above, are not feasible. The needs of full-time members of a class could not properly be served if the employed members were on a week-in, week-out basis.

6. That evening-school and extension opportunities be made more widely available.

7. That special calendar arrangements be considered for rural areas where the farm labor problem is acute.

8. That a basis be established for the granting of State aid to all approved educational programs, including evening-school and extension work.

9. That the counseling service of schools be established on a 12-month basis and that it main-

tain close contact with all nongraduates to the age of 18.

10. That, for these problems, the education department enlist the cooperation of State and local groups representing business, industry, labor, and the War Manpower Commission.

11. That plans be made to effect the noteworthy legislative changes implied in the program above.

It is felt that such arrangements would give employers a proper chance to employ youth without disrupting cultural and vocational progress.

The schools, on their part, should do everything possible to maintain a curriculum in harmony with the expanding needs and interests of youth. At present the drawing power of business and industrial concerns is inversely related to the fundamental appeal of the high-school program. It is possible that one source of the present difficulty lies within the school system: We have not always presented to a boy the long-time significance of a decision on his part to quit school before he has finished. To bring each boy and girl to the highest level of vocational efficiency and cultural outlook is a worthy aim—in war or in peace. We find total agreement on this point among the industrial, military, and educational leaders.

The measures recommended above are regarded as wartime in character, to be considered without commitments beyond the present emergency. However, to the extent that they are put into effect, school authorities should undertake researches and inquiries designed to evaluate the outcome. In this way we should establish a pool of objective experience to be drawn upon in the post-war period.

The "Back to School" Campaign

Communities in all parts of the country have taken up the challenge of the "Back to School" campaign begun in August, by conducting State and local back-to-school drives. Requests for copies of "Back to School," the leaflet issued jointly by the Children's Bureau and the United States Office of Education which gives facts on what failure to finish school means in terms of loss to the individual youth and to the Nation and suggestions for convincing youth that school is their essential job, have been received from schools, labor departments, placement agencies, parent-teacher associations, youth-serving agencies, labor groups, church groups, community-service clubs, defense councils, and other citizen groups. The message joined in by the War Manpower Commission, to the effect that the first responsibility and obligation of youth under 18, even in wartime, is to take full advantage of their educational opportunities to prepare themselves for war and post-war services and for the duties of citizenship, has been carried in news columns and newspaper editorials, through radio programs in local communities with students, school officials, mayors, and civic leaders participating, and by organizations that rallied their members and spread the news to boys and girls in news letters and journals.

In one city, for example, local school officials made efforts to get in touch with every 16- and 17-year-old student who had obtained an employment certificate during the summer and tried to persuade him to return to school, telling him that provision could be made for him to combine school and work if his services were needed for the war effort.

An indication of the effect of the campaign on the boys and girls themselves is given in the letter written by one high-school student to the President asking advice on how many hours he might work after school. "I am 17 years old," he wrote, "and old enough to be in the armed forces, but your plea that high-school students finish school stopped me from joining up. I figured I could get my education and help in the war effort too by working in a defense plant."

Enrollment in the schools for the fall term is now completed and school sessions are well under way. The community's responsibility, however, is far from ended. The task is theirs for the duration of the war of convincing boys and girls that their essential job is to STAY IN SCHOOL. In critical labor-shortage areas where there may be need to draw upon the part-time services of school-age boys and girls to fill

essential war jobs, communities are looking for guidance to the statement of standards for part-time employment of school youth, issued jointly by the War Manpower Commission, the U. S. Office of Education, and the Children's Bureau. Copies of this statement, which appeared in *The Child* for October 1943 and *Education for Victory* for October 1, 1943, are available upon request to the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

• SAFEGUARDING THE HEALTH OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN •

National Conference on State Rheumatic-Fever Programs

Care of children with rheumatic fever and heart disease under State programs was discussed at a national conference held by the Children's Bureau at Washington, October 5, 6, and 7, 1943. Since 1939 a portion of the Federal funds appropriated annually for crippled children's services under the Social Security Act has been used for development of rheumatic-fever programs. Fourteen States now have such programs in operation, and several additional States have completed plans for them.

The conference was called in order to offer an opportunity for an exchange of ideas and experience in the administration of the State programs; to review medical, nursing, and social problems affecting the rheumatic child; to consider new developments in diagnosis and therapy; to explore needs for extension and improvement in the programs; and to discuss the adequacy of present facilities and services for meeting the needs of rheumatic children.

Besides representatives of the State agencies concerned in the programs, persons attending the conference included members of the Children's Bureau Advisory Committee on Services for Crippled Children, clinical investigators who have been working with rheumatic fever, and representatives of professional and lay organizations concerned with the health and welfare of the rheumatic child.

That rheumatic heart disease is responsible for thousands of rejections from the armed forces was pointed out by Col. Leonard G. Rowntree, Chief, Medical Division, Bureau of Selective Service. Among 13,000,000 men examined, more than 230,000 were classified as 4–F because of heart disease, he said. Dr. Rowntree estimated that nearly half of these defects were caused by rheumatic fever.

Brig. Gen. Hugh Morgan, medical consultant, Surgeon General's Office, United States Army, reviewed the current experience in the Army in dealing with the problem of rheumatic fever, indicating that the problem is essentially the same in the Army as in the civilian population. He urged that civilian health authorities follow the lead of the Army in taking vigorous steps to combat this disease.

At a round-table discussion it was agreed that the use of small daily doses of the sulfonamide drugs is remarkably effective in preventing recurrent attacks of rheumatic fever. The following physicians, selected because they had reported research work on this subject, took part in the discussion: Dr. Homer F. Swift, New York; Lt. Comdr. Alvin F. Coburn, United States Navy; Dr. Ann Kuttner, Boston; Dr. Arild E. Hansen, Minneapolis; Dr. Katherine G. Dodge, New York; Maj. William Button, United States Army; Dr. Caroline Thomas, Baltimore; and Dr. Caroline A. Chandler, Washington. Warning was given against use of the sulfonamides without close medical supervision. It was pointed out that the use of these drugs as a prophylactic measure should be considered only an adjunct to a regimen of general health supervision for the rheumatic child.

At other sessions of the conference emphasis was placed on the importance of early diagnosis during the initial attack of the disease, referral of patients to special diagnostic clinics, examination of siblings of rheumatic children, provisions for institutional care during the period of active infection, educational and recreational activities for children confined to bed for long periods of time, schooling for children with heart disease, and coordination of community facilities and services for the care and management of the rheumatic child.

Those attending the conference agreed that rheumatic fever represents an important public-health problem in the United States, but that facilities and services have not been developed to the point where the needs of children afflicted with this disease are being adequately met. Many members of the conference pointed to the need for further opportunities for local physicians to become more fully acquainted with the disease and with methods for the care and management of the rheumatic child. It was apparent that the problems of children afflicted with rheumatic fever cannot be met by the services of any single individual or agency but call for the close cooperation of physicians, nurses, social workers, educators, and others engaged in related fields.

Dr. T. Duckett Jones, Boston, in summing up the conference at the closing session, called attention to the progress that had been made in many States during the past 3 years in the care of the rheumatic child through the development of the State programs and pointed to the need for the extension of existing programs and for the development of similar services in other States.

BOOK NOTES

THE SCIENCE OF NUTRITION, by Henry C. Sherman. Columbia University Press, New York. 1943. 253 pp. $2.75.

Later editions of the author's standard textbook, Chemistry of Food and Nutrition, have included chapters on the potentialities of the new science of nutrition in terms of human health and welfare. Undoubtedly many individuals to whom these chapters would have been meaningful have never found them so because of their inability to cope with the technical nature of the book as a whole. The new book has as its aim a "summary and evaluation of the present status of the science of nutrition in as concise and impersonal a manner as is practicable." It is addressed to the reader who may have no specific training in science but who possesses scientific curiosity and the desire to review evidence from which the author makes his human applications.

The early chapters review simply and concisely existing knowledge of food needs, essential nutrients, and the nutritional characteristics of foods. The last six chapters present the promise that the science of nutrition offers in the way of higher health and longer life. As the author states, "this might be called a book *about* nutrition rather than *in* the science."

"NOT YET FIVE"; children over two in wartime nurseries. Issued by the Board of Education and the Ministry of Health, October 1942. London, H. M. Stationery Office, London. 21 pp. Price, 3d net.

The widespread development of wartime nurseries in England since the publication of the Joint Circular on Nursery Centres (Board of Education Circular 1945, Ministry of Health Circular 1936) issued in January 1940 has led to the publication of this amplified edition of the appendix. The points covered include setting up a nursery, the day's program, with sample menus for three days (breakfast, dinner, and tea), play material, playing with the children, and health.

AT HOME WITH CHILDREN, by Charlotte Gano Garrison and Emma Dickson Sheehy. Henry Holt & Co., New York, 1943. 256 pp. $2.50.

The authors draw on their experience with the children of Horace Mann School of Teachers College in order to present a wide range of suggestions for young children's play and play materials, including lists of stories, songs, and music. The book is planned for the use of parents, and its eminently practical ideas should stimulate mothers of preschool children to use their imagination and look at their children's activities through fresh eyes.

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The Proceedings of the Second American Congress on Obstetrics and Gynecology have been published and can now be purchased from the American Committee on Maternal Welfare (650 Rush St., Chicago) for $5.50. The volume deals with practically all branches of obstetrics—not only the scientific aspects but also nursing, hospital, educational, and ethical aspects and is offered as a current reference work. The supply is limited.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

New Bureau Publications

The thousands of American youngsters who "get into trouble" each year are typified in a bulletin, "Understanding Juvenile Delinquency," in three boys caught removing the tires from an automobile they had "borrowed." The complex factors underlying delinquent behavior are traced through the family and school history of these boys. The influences that can be brought to bear in the treatment of juvenile delinquency through strengthening home life, through the church, the school, the playground, through social services, psychiatric study, the juvenile court, and institutional or foster-family care are described through their bearing on the cases of these boys. One section deals especially with wartime conditions conducive to delinquency. Single copies are sent free on request.

Understanding Juvenile Delinquency. Children's Bureau Publication 300, Washington, 1943. 52 pp.

A handbook for the use of community groups concerned with problems of juvenile delinquency in wartime has just been issued by the Children's Bureau under the title "Controlling Juvenile Delinquency: A Community Program." Reexamination of all community resources that may contribute to the wholesome development of children and youth plus provision for special programs and services to meet the wartime situation is the course of action recommended, and it is not an easy one. Behavior difficulties and juvenile delinquency stem from failure of the home and the community to satisfy the basic needs of children and youth for security and for opportunity for growth and achievement. Because of the extraordinary strains placed on home life under war conditions, the community has greater responsibility than ever before for assisting parents in meeting their obligations toward their children and for providing supplementary services outside the home.

There is no cause for hysteria, as the bulletin makes clear. Most of the young people of today are meeting the emergency with clarity and courage. Nevertheless, a program to meet the juvenile-delinquency problem is of first importance, not only for the sake of the "delinquents" themselves, but for the sake of other boys and girls who may be faced with similar situations and for the welfare of the community as a whole.

The four areas of community activity for the prevention and control of juvenile delinquency, as described in part I, Goals for Community Action, are as follows:

1. Strengthening of resources needed by all children—home life, schooling, church influences, and recreational and group facilities,
2. Protection of groups of children especially vulnerable to delinquency, including children of employed mothers, boys and girls in employment, children living in crowded quarters or congested areas, mentally and physically handicapped children, and children in families with economic need.
3. Control of harmful influences in the community through legal authority, effective enforcement of legal measures, protection of youth in public places, and the voluntary cooperation of commercial establishments.
4. Services for the delinquent child and the child with behavior problems, including social services, the police and juvenile court, adequate detention care, institutional and foster-family care, and child-guidance services.

Procedures for action are given in part II, which outlines the steps to be taken in the organization of a community program and in putting the program into action.

This handbook, which is designed especially for the use of committees of State and local defense councils, councils of social agencies, and other community groups assuming active responsibility in preventing and controlling juvenile delinquency, completes the series of three publications recommended by the Children's Bureau Commission on Children in Wartime at its meeting at the White House in February 1943. The first was "Community Action for Children in Wartime" and the second, "To Mothers and Fathers of the Nation's Wartime Children," a letter from the Chief of the Children's Bureau. Single copies of these two publications as well as of "Controlling Juvenile Delinquency" can be obtained free on request.

Controlling Juvenile Delinquency: A Community Program. Children's Bureau Publication 301, Washington, 1943. 27 pp.

• INTER-AMERICAN COOPERATION •

Argentina

Boy apprentices in industrial employment 14 to 18 years of age are now permitted to work 8 hours a day and 48 hours a week in Argentina, by a Presidential decree of August 24, 1943. This decree modifies the provisions of the child-labor law of 1924, which set as maximum working hours for boys and girls aged 14 to 18 years 6 hours a day and 36 hours a week. (Under that law the minimum age for entering employment for both boys and girls is 14.) The lengthened hours are permitted only for boy apprentices; for other young persons the 6-hour day is to remain in force.

Employment under the new hours is permitted upon presentation of a certificate showing completion of the required school course, a certificate of physical fitness issued by a public-health officer, permission from parent or guardian, and an identification card from the police. If the boy is under 16 years of age, a permit from the National Department of Labor is also required.

An entrance minimum wage of 45 centavos per hour in the capital, Buenos Aires, is prescribed; for other places the minimum wage will be determined by specified authorities.

Penalties are prescribed for violations of the decree by employers.

Mexico

National Public-Welfare Congress

The first National Congress of Social Welfare ever held in Mexico (Congreso Nacional de la Asistencia Pública), met on August 15–22, 1943, under the auspices of the Federal Department of Public Welfare (Secretaría de la Asistencia Pública) at Mexico City. The Congress was attended by 750 delegates, one-half of them women, representing the medical and the legal professions, universities, Mexican States and municipalities, and social-welfare agencies. The United States and other American republics were represented.

Eight hundred papers were presented to the Congress, showing the situation of children in Mexico and the social-welfare problems faced by the country, such as the insufficiency of appropriations for health and welfare work to meet the needs of the people. Social-welfare work was emphasized as the duty of the State and of society.

Resolutions were adopted, asking that administration of social-welfare work be entrusted to the Federal Department of Social Welfare; that a single social-welfare law, following the recommendations of the Eighth Pan American Child Congress, be enacted for the entire country; and that properly trained staff be employed. Other resolutions that were adopted called for recognition of the family as the basis of society, for granting aid to destitute families so as to prevent the separation of children from their parents, for extending medical services to all needy expectant mothers, to babies, and to sick children, for enlarging the program of school lunches, and for taking measures to prevent tuberculosis among children.

Other resolutions related to the need for improving the situation of rural Indians, provision of occupational training for physical and mental defectives and socially maladjusted persons, and institution of preventive health work in connection with the social-insurance system.

At the closing session it was announced that the department of social welfare would study the conclusions for the purpose of formulating a program of action.

El Universal, August 15–23, 1943, and Tiempo, August 27 and September 17, 1943, both of Mexico City.

Annual Report of the President

In his annual report to Congress on September 1, 1943, the President of Mexico spoke of the important developments in the various departments of the Federal Government. The Department of Public Welfare (Secretaría de Asistencia Pública) has opened a Children's Hospital with 500 beds, the first Government institution of its kind in the country. A maternity hospital and a National Institute of Cardiology have been constructed as parts of the Medical Center of the Federal District. The first public dining hall for families, where

nutritious meals are served at nominal cost or free, continued its work; a second dining hall is nearing completion, and plans for a third are being made.

The Mexican Government established the Institute of the Science of Nutrition (Instituto de Nutriología) early in 1943. Instruction in nutrition was given to public-school teachers and to members of the staffs of children's institutions and of the public dining hall.

In accordance with a newly adopted policy, many dependent children were removed from institutions and placed in foster homes.

The social-insurance law enacted in December 1942 is to go into effect on January 1, 1944, and will make sickness and maternity insurance, among other branches of social insurance, compulsory for workers.

The Department of Public Education, which received an increased appropriation, reported an increase in the number of schools and kindergartens; better training facilities for kindergarten teachers; and more regular school attendance. For the education of people in isolated rural localities and the general improvement of their condition, groups of teachers who also do social-welfare work, were sent to at least 34 additional places in the year just ended.

Measures were taken for improving the training of physicians, nurses, and sanitary engineers, a number of whom received fellowships enabling them to study in the United States.

El Popular, Mexico City, September 2, 1943.

Brazil

A Brazilian decree of 1941 providing assistance to large families was made effective April 2, 1943. The measure entitles heads of families of Brazilian nationality who have eight or more dependent children under 18 years of age living in their households to receive family allowances if their income is insufficient "to meet their minimum needs." Families with eight children will receive 100 cruzeiros a month ($6 according to the official rate of exchange in 1943); an additional allowance of 20 cruzeiros a month will be paid for each child after the eighth.

The cost of the allowances will be borne jointly by the Federal Government, the States, and the municipalities.

International Labour Review, September 1943, p. 388.

• EVENTS OF CURRENT INTEREST •

Political-Science Meetings To Be Broadcast

The American Political Science Association, the American Economic Association, and the American Society for Public Administration are planning to hold a joint annual meeting in Washington, D. C., January 21 to 23, 1944. Because of wartime restrictions on travel, arrangements are being made for Nation-wide broadcasting of some of the sessions, and for local meetings in various parts of the country with programs which may be built in part around the radio broadcasts from Washington. Dr. Marshall E. Dimock, chairman of the Washington Committee of the American Political Science Association, is in charge of the program for that association.

American Education Week

"Victory through education" is the theme announced for American Education Week, 1943, which will be observed November 7 to 13. American Education Week is sponsored jointly by the National Education Association, the American Legion, the United States Office of Education, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. For further information and for packets of program material (50 cents each), write to National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington 6, D. C.

Owing to wartime conditions the number of copies of THE CHILD that can be sent free has been limited to a figure that makes it impossible to add any new names, even those of public officials or libraries, at this time.

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In This Issue . . .

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Children's Bureau Experience in Administration of the Child-Labor Provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act

TED STATES
ARTMENT OF LABOR
LDREN'S BUREAU

THE CHILD

MONTHLY BULLETIN

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UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY

CHILDREN'S BUREAU

KATHARINE F. LENROOT, CHIEF

U. S. SUPERINTENDENT OF DOCUMENTS

JAN 7 1944

WE ARE fighting again for human freedom and especially for the future of our children in a free world. Children must be safeguarded—and they can be safeguarded—in the midst of this total war so that they can live and share in that future.—*A Children's Charter in Wartime.*

• YOUNG WORKERS IN WARTIME •

Five Years of Federal Control of Child Labor

Children's Bureau Experience in Administration of the Child-Labor Provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act

By Beatrice McConnell, *Director, Industrial Division, U. S. Children's Bureau*

When Congress included child-labor provisions in the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 and entrusted the enforcement of these provisions to the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, it gave to the Bureau a challenge to make this Federal child-labor law effective for all the children coming under the act's interstate-commerce jurisdiction and to carry out this duty in a way that would reinforce and strengthen State child-labor control in employment of any type.

The 5 years that these child-labor provisions have been in existence extend from a peacetime period of relatively little demand for child labor into a war period when youth has become an important source of labor supply and when the pressure for labor due to war demands has placed unprecedented strain upon the enforcement of all types of labor safeguards. These provisions, as administered by the Bureau, have been throughout the 5 years a strong bulwark against the employment of young children in interstate industries and have functioned as a support to State child-labor laws affecting other fields of employment and their administration. However, with the rapid wartime increase in the number of employed boys and girls under 18, and even under 16, it has not been possible to prevent a weakening of this bulwark and this support in the face of war conditions and curtailment of the Bureau's resources for administration of the child-labor law. In order to prevent wholesale break-downs in Federal standards for young workers it is important that effective and Nation-wide enforcement be developed and carried forward.

In 1939, the first full year the act was in effect, unemployment of out-of-school young persons between 18 and 24 years of age was a serious national problem, and the number of children under 16 years of age receiving employment or age certificates for work was lower than it had been at any time during the previous decade, except in the period 1934–35, when the short-lived codes under the National Industrial Recovery Act had established a 16-year minimum age in practically all industry and commerce throughout the country. The 1940 census showed fewer than a million boys and girls 14 through 17 years of age at work. In September 1943, the best available estimates placed the number of these young workers at a little more than 3 millions—1 million 14 or 15 years of age, and 2 millions 16 or 17. Many of these were in industries subject to the Federal child-labor provisions. Thousands under 14 years of age were also at work. Since 1940 also the number of employment and age certificates issued for children going to work has trebled and quadrupled.

In spite of great wartime pressure the framework of the Bureau's administration that had been set up early in the history of the act and developed through close cooperation with other agencies has proved a sound basis for meeting new difficulties.

The story of how the Children's Bureau, with the cooperation of the Wage and Hour Division of the Department of Labor and that of State and local agencies, has carried on this work of administration during the past 5 years is here presented.

Standards and Constitutionality of the Law

The Federal child-labor legislation that is embodied in the Fair Labor Standards Act[1] establishes minimum ages below which young workers may not be employed, just as other provisions of the act establish wage-and-hour

[1] Act of June 25, 1938, Public, No. 718, 75th Cong., 3d sess., ch. 676. The substantive provisions of the act went into effect 120 days after June 25, thus giving 4 months for setting up the administrative machinery and for necessary adjustments by employers.

standards for workers of all ages.[2] The administration of the minimum-age provisions is placed in the hands of the Children's Bureau, and the Chief of the Bureau is given full investigatory and inspection powers.

Specifically these child-labor provisions establish a basic minimum age of 16 years for employment in or about establishments producing goods for shipment in interstate or foreign commerce. In addition, the act recognizes that minors 16 and 17 years of age should be protected from employment particularly hazardous for them or detrimental to their health and well-being, and provides for administrative action to apply a minimum age of 18 to such employment. The machinery through which these standards are applied is a prohibition, applicable to producers, manufacturers, and dealers, of the shipment, or delivery for shipment, in commerce (interstate or foreign) of goods produced in an establishment situated in the United States, in or about which oppressive child labor has been employed within 30 days prior to their removal therefrom.

Exception to the 16-year minimum age is made for employment of children of 14 and 15 in nonmanufacturing and nonmining occupations under conditions not detrimental to their health or well-being and during periods that do not interfere with their schooling—such conditions and periods to be determined by the Chief of the Children's Bureau. Employment contrary to these standards is declared to be "oppressive child labor," and the products of establishments where such child labor is employed are barred from shipment in interstate or foreign commerce.

Children under 16 years of age working for their parents in nonmanufacturing and nonmining occupations and child actors in motion picture or theatrical productions are exempted from these provisions. Children employed in agriculture are covered only during such periods as they are required by State law to attend school, and not at any other time.

The law had been in effect for more than 2 years before a test of its constitutionality came before the United States Supreme Court, although it had been upheld in some of the lower Federal courts. In the case of *United States* v. *Darby*,[3] decided February 3, 1941, the Supreme Court held that all the restrictions of the act, including those relating to child labor, are well within the field of congressional control under the commerce clause, and specifically overruled the case of *Hammer* v. *Dagenhart*, which had declared the first Federal child-labor law unconstitutional. This decision enabled the administration of the child-labor provisions of the act to go ahead confidently without fear of a set-back such as had interrupted the three prior efforts to bring about a measure of Federal child-labor control.[4]

Methods of Administration

The administration of these child-labor provisions has been carried forward in four general channels: (1) Setting standards, based on fact-finding, that are necessary to defining nonharmful work in which children 14 or 15 years of age may be employed, and occupations particularly hazardous for minors of 16 or 17; (2) inspecting places of employment; (3) making certificates of age available to help prevent violations, and to give employers the protection the act provides; and (4) litigation through injunction suits or criminal prosecution.

The Children's Bureau responsibility for administration was assigned to its Industrial Division, which was expanded to carry out its new duties. The Bureau's first appropriation for administration of these child-labor provisions was $114,794,[4a] to cover the first 8 months the act was in effect, from October 24, 1938, to June 30, 1939. Its appropriations for the succeeding fiscal years have been: For 1940, $312,720; for 1941, $288,000; for 1942, $279,623; for 1943, $251,660; for 1944, $225,000.

An assistant to the Director of the Division was placed in immediate charge of administration, and under her direction a specialist in employment certification and a specialist in inspection are responsible for the working out of general policies in their respective fields. Regional child-labor consultants [5] have responsibility, in their assigned groups of States, for the general development and coordination of age-certificate and inspection programs, including cooperation with the regional staff of the Wage and Hour Division and with State departments

[2] The wage-and-hour provisions are administered by the Wage and Hour Division of the Department of Labor.

[3] This case (*United States* v. *F. W. Darby Lumber Co. and Fred W. Darby*) came to the Supreme Court on appeal by the Government from the United States District Court for the Southern District of Georgia, which had held the act an unconstitutional device to invade the province of the States and to control production.

[4] These prior efforts were made through (1) the first Federal child-labor law, declared unconstitutional June 3, 1918, in *Hammer* v. *Dagenhart* (247 U. S. 251); (2) the second Federal child-labor law, declared unconstitutional May 15, 1922, in *Bailey* v. *Drexel Furniture Co.* (259 U. S. 20); and (3) codes under the National Industrial Recovery Act—the code-making power was declared unconstitutional May 27, 1935 in *Schechter* v. *United States* (295 U. S. 495).

[4a] Includes allotment of $55,794 from Department of Labor appropriation.

[5] Up to July 1941, there were five child-labor regions, each under a regional consultant. At that time a sixth region was established. In order to facilitate the program of cooperation with the Wage and Hour Divlsion the child-labor regions were revised so that each such region included from one to three Wage and Hour regions.

of labor and education. The development of hazardous-occupations orders under the act, and the fact-finding needed in the handling of special problems, have been the responsibility of the research section of the Division. The Office of the Solicitor of the Department of Labor handles questions of legal interpretation and litigation under the act.

In all its aspects administration has been geared to a Nation-wide movement toward good labor standards for children, integrating both State and Federal activities, and carrying them to a more effective conclusion than would be possible for either State or Federal Government alone. Cooperation with the States is the more important because the Federal child-labor standards are effective only for industries producing goods shipped in interstate commerce, and not for the far wider area of employment in industries not interstate in character. Enforcement plans, moreover, have recognized that cooperation of State and Federal labor departments is essential to obtain for all workers the maximum benefits of any Federal labor legislation. It is clear also that such cooperation was contemplated by Congress, since the act provides for the utilization of State agencies enforcing labor laws and preserves all higher standards set by State laws.

These cooperative measures have included not only the wide acceptance by the Bureau of State certificates as proof of age under the act, and the special agreements with a few States for inspections by State labor departments, described later, but also the reporting to State labor departments of instances of State child-labor law violations found by Children's Bureau inspectors or by inspectors of the Wage and Hour Division.[6]

Fact-Finding and Setting of Standards

Employment in Hazardous Occupations.

To protect boys and girls up to 18 years of age from employment hazardous for them, the act gives to the Chief of the Children's Bureau specific authority to find and declare occupations particularly hazardous or detrimental to the health or well-being of minors of 16 and 17 years. Under this power the Bureau has issued hazardous-occupations orders, in effect establishing an 18-year minimum age for employment in the occupations covered. These orders apply to occupations in explosives plants, motor-vehicle drivers and helpers, coal mining except in certain surface occupations, operation of power-driven woodworking machines and certain types of off-bearing, sawmilling and most logging occupations, and occupations involving exposure to radioactive substances. These orders have been based in every case upon comprehensive studies of the hazards involved, and have been made after public hearings. Assistance has been given to the Bureau by an Advisory Committee on Occupations Hazardous for Minors[7] and by technical advisory groups composed of representatives of labor and employers, as well as technical and safety experts.

With the increased employment of minors due to the war, with young workers going into new types of work, and with an increase in industrial accidents, there was an immediate need for new standards relating to a wide variety of hazardous occupations and for a quick and flexible medium for promoting such standards. To meet this need the Children's Bureau has developed advisory standards for certain industries and processes important in war production, which suggest the types of work in which minors may suitably be employed as well as those in which they should not be employed.

Voluntary adoption of these standards, which are advisory only and do not have the force of law, has been urged in the effort to fit the employment of 16- and 17-year-old boys and girls into its proper place in the war manpower program without harm to the young workers.

Advisory standards have already been issued in leaflet form for shipbuilding, lead and lead-using industries, employment involving exposure to carbon disulfide, employment involving exposure to chlorinated solvents, welding occupations, operation of metal-working machines, and the aircraft industry. Additional standards are contemplated for industries in which few minors were normally employed in peacetime but in which many young persons are now working; as for instance, the railroad industry, which employed thousands of high-school boys during the 1943 school-vacation period.

Employment of 14- and 15-Year-Old Children.

As has already been stated, the act permits certain safeguarded employment of 14- and 15-year-old children in nonmanufacturing and nonmining occupations. Boys and girls of these ages are going through a period of special physical and mental strain, a strain inevitably

[6] In the 5-year period the Bureau has reported 2,637 instances of apparent violations of State child-labor laws, found in the course of Federal inspections, to labor-law enforcing officials in 46 States and 2 Territories.

[7] The membership of this advisory committee includes leaders in the fields of industrial safety and industrial health, child-labor and child-welfare fields, representatives of labor and employers, and Government advisers from interested bureaus.

heightened by conditions of regular employment. This fact is a sound basis for careful restriction of the hours, types, and conditions of work to be permitted for them if the standard set by the act is to be met; that is, that the education, health, and general well-being of the child must not be harmed. Such restrictions are embodied in Child Labor Regulation No. 3, issued after public hearings held by the Chief of the Children's Bureau. Permitted employment for these children is limited to work outside school hours, and, even in the area of nonmanufacturing and nonmining occupations, children of these ages are excluded from (1) work in processing occupations, (2) work which takes them into rooms where manufacturing, mining, or processing is carried on, (3) operation of power-driven machinery, (4) operation of hoisting apparatus, including elevators, (5) public messenger service, and (6) such occupations as are found and declared to be especially hazardous for minors 16 and 17.

In the kinds of work subject to the law that remain open for children of 14 and 15 years, their maximum hours and their work at night are limited. During any week when school is in session a maximum of 3 hours a day and 18 hours a week is fixed, while during school-vacation periods a maximum of 8 hours a day and 40 hours a week is permitted. To provide a sufficient period for rest and sleep, these daily hours of work must fall between 7 a. m. and 7 p. m.[8]

As a wartime measure and to meet acute labor shortages, three processing occupations—the cutting of pears, peaches, and apricots in fruit dry yards, the heading and peeling of shrimp for shipment as fresh raw or fresh frozen shrimp, and the picking of turkeys [9]—have been permitted for 14- and 15-year-old children outside school hours, and, in sheds where fresh fruits and vegetables are packed, employment of children of these ages has been permitted up to 10 p. m. on days when school is not in session, during a period of not more than 8 weeks in any calendar year. Special safeguards, including the requirement of a maximum 6-day week and a 45-minute lunch period, have been established for children employed under these exemptions, and they are subject also to the hours of labor and night-work limitations for other 14- and 15-year-old workers.[10]

[8] Except in the distribution of newspapers, which is permitted as early as 6 a. m. and, during the period from April 1 to September 20, as late as 8 p. m.; however, these deviations from the general night-work prohibition are not allowed for a child who works in the distribution of newspapers both before and after school.

[9] The amendment applying to turkey picking is limited to the 1943 season.

[10] Employment up to 8 p. m. is allowed in the picking and heading of shrimp in raw-shrimp houses.

Inspection of Establishments

An adequate program of inspection to discover violations is essential in the administration of any labor law. Failure to enforce a law adequately and to punish violators not only is unfair to employers who seek to abide by its provisions, but breeds disregard for the law itself. The inspection program of the Bureau, planned with a view to avoiding duplication and making the most effective use of its small staff to keep in operation a Nation-wide program has been (1) to broaden the scope of child-labor inspections by cooperative arrangements with the Wage and Hour Division under which that Division makes inspections for child labor primarily in establishments subject to both the wage-and-hour and the child-labor provisions of the act, and (2) to use the Children's Bureau's own staff to make inspections in establishments and localities in which there is good reason to believe that child labor exists, and in establishments that are subject to the child-labor provisions of the act but exempt from the wage-and-hour provisions.

While inspections under the act have accomplished much to curb illegal employment of children, lack of staff has always seriously hampered the Bureau's inspection program, for it has been impossible, even with the cooperation of the Wage and Hour Division, to make inspections in many areas and industries in which child labor is known or believed to exist. Paradoxically enough, as the number of young workers has increased during the war period, the Children's Bureau field staff, always small, has been reduced. The Bureau's largest field staff at any time during the 5-year period for use in both inspection and certification activities, and in consultative services to the Wage and Hour regional staff, was in the fiscal year ended June 30, 1942, when it numbered 19 exclusive of the 6 regional consultants. Since July 1942 this staff has been cut by 6, so that at present (October 1943) it numbers only 13.

As a part of its policy of enforcement through education, every effort has been made to inform employers and the public in the terms of the law, through widespread distribution of leaflets summarizing the law, and regulations and orders issued under it, and through press notices calling attention to interpretations of coverage and to the importance of age certificates and the method of obtaining them.

Cooperative Arrangements for Inspections.

Cooperation with the Wage and Hour Division has always been an important part of the Bureau's inspection program. From the beginning the Bureau has assisted in the training of

Wage and Hour inspectors in child-labor inspection techniques, in the preparation of inspection forms and instructions, and in the making of joint inspections in the more complicated child-labor cases. With the increase in employment of youth and the attendant increase in illegal child labor it was felt that even closer integration of the work of the Children's Bureau with the Wage and Hour Division was essential. In the fall of 1941, therefore, associate child-labor consultants were assigned for full-time service to the Wage and Hour regions. There are now seven such consultants, each serving from 1 to 3 of the 13 Wage and Hour regions. Their duties include instructing new inspectors in techniques and procedures of child-labor inspections; making joint child-labor inspections with staff of the Wage and Hour Division in establishments that present special problems; handling situations involving child-labor coverage and interpretations of child-labor regulations or problems of age certification as they develop in the course of inspection; and, in general, serving as specialists in the child-labor phases of the program throughout the region.

Under the working arrangements established between the two staffs, the Wage and Hour Division sends to the Children's Bureau reports on establishments that are found to be employing minors of the oppressive child-labor age or employing minors without certificates of age on file. In addition, the Wage and Hour Division sends reports to the Bureau on the number of establishments employing any minors with certificates of age on file, together with the number of minors in each age group[11] so employed. The responsibility for obtaining complete verifications of ages of minors and for taking the action required on the case rests with the Children's Bureau. In turn, the Children's Bureau sends the Wage and Hour Division reports on the establishments inspected by its staff showing both child-labor findings and any indications of wage or other violations of the act. After the Public Contracts Division of the Department of Labor was consolidated with the Wage and Hour Division in 1942, these cooperative arrangements were expanded to cover reports of inspections under the Public Contracts Act.

In accordance with the authority given by the Fair Labor Standards Act permitting the reimbursement of State agencies for assistance in enforcement, agreements have been made by the Children's Bureau and the Wage and Hour Division with three States—Connecticut,[12] North Carolina, Minnesota—and the District of Columbia, whereby State labor department inspectors have the responsibility of inspecting for compliance with the act. Under these agreements reports on child-labor findings are sent to the Children's Bureau, which has the responsibility for taking needed action on the case.

[11] Under 16 and 16 and 17 in any occupation, and 18 and 19 in occupations declared particularly hazardous.

[12] The cooperative arrangement with Connecticut was discontinued in June 1943.

Certificates of Age

Experience of a hundred years in State child-labor legislation has shown that a basic element of effective administration of a child-labor law is the employment-certificate system, which enables the employer to be certain that he is not employing children under the age set by the law and gives the child the protection from employment harmful for him that the law intends. The employer is not required under the Fair Labor Standards Act to obtain these certificates, but he has a powerful incentive to do so because a certificate kept on file by him, showing the minor to be above the oppressive child-labor age, is conclusive evidence that he is complying with the child-labor standards.

Under certain permissive provisions of the law, and with the wholehearted cooperation of State and local officials administering child-labor laws, the systems of issuance of employment and age certificates already existing in the States have been used as a basis of administration. As the validity of the certificate for acceptance under the Federal act depends upon its being issued under Children's Bureau regulations, the Bureau had an opportunity to develop and encourage the use by State and local agencies of standards of good certification. On the basis of such standards the Bureau has worked with the States on plans under which they make available certificates of age that are acceptable under the act.

In all, 44 States, the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico have come into the cooperating group of States where certificates are accepted under the Federal act. In the remaining 4 States (Idaho, South Carolina, Mississippi, and Texas), where there is no State certificate system that could be utilized, Federal certificates are being issued by the Children's Bureau with the close cooperation of State and local officials.[13]

Under the arrangements worked out in these States, the State is officially designated by the Chief of the Children's Bureau as a State in which State certificates will be accepted as proof

[13] In Alaska, under a special regulation, employers are protected by having on file birth or baptism certificates for their minor employees, showing that they are above the oppressive child-labor age for the occupation in which they are employed.

of age under the Federal act, and a State official, usually the head of the State labor department or the State education department, agrees to make certificates available. Assistance in developing good certification methods is given by the Bureau through consultative service to State and local agencies and in a few States through asssignment of clerical staff. Continued consultation and cooperation with State and local officials issuing or supervising the issuance of State certificates have in many places stimulated a consciousness of the value of the certificate system, have spread a knowledge of good methods of certificate issuance, and have resulted in widespread improvement in methods of administration of State child-labor laws.

This certification system fits into the general scheme of enforcement by helping to prevent employment of children under the legal age, and by giving employers a safeguard against unintentional violation of the law. Inspectors check the certificates on file with the employer, and, where certificates are lacking for minor employees, impress upon the employer the value to him of the certificate safeguard. The importance of urging employers to obtain certificates in order to prevent violations is illustrated by findings of inspections made for compliance with the child-labor provisions of the act. For example, in the fiscal year 1943, at least 75 percent of the employers found in violation had no certificates on file for their minor employees, and in the previous year, 1942, no certificates were on file for 93 percent of the minors found employed in violation of the child-labor provisions.

During this war period demands upon issuing officers for certificates have increased fourfold for the country as a whole, and in some places have increased 500, 600, or 700 percent. Many States, in order to cooperate in the program, are issuing certificates for 16- and 17-year-old workers, valid under the Federal act, that are not required under their State laws. To meet these emergencies, Bureau representatives have developed with local issuing officers timesaving methods or emergency procedures, have helped in advance planning for increased volume of work, and have given assistance in issuing certificates under temporary emergency conditions. But it has been impossible to give aid in more than a small fraction of the places where it has been greatly needed. In many instances employers have not been able to get certificates promptly or certificates have been incorrectly issued because the State supervising office has been unable to examine the thousands of duplicate certificates sent to them for checking as to employment legal under both State and Federal law. The inevitable result is an increase in illegal employment.

Illegal Child Labor

In general there has been wide acceptance of the child-labor provisions of the act and a genuine desire on the part of the large majority of employers to abide by its provisions. Nevertheless there have also been employers who through either ignorance or deliberate intent have disobeyed the law. As the pressure for labor has increased during the war period and many employers who formerly had employed only adult workers turned to youth for a new labor supply, this group of violating employers has increased. While in proportion to the number of establishments covered by the act, this group may seem comparatively small, it is large enough to be disturbing, especially when considered in terms of the large number of child workers involved. Moreover, it is obvious, in view of the limited staff available and the increasing trend in employment of children, that only a small part of the violators have been detected.

Under the impact of the war the number of violations of the child-labor provisions found has increased almost threefold. During the whole period that the act has been in effect, Federal inspectors have found 12,881 minors illegally employed in 4,334 establishments.[13a] But in the past 2 years more than 3 times as many establishments were found in violation and 2½ times as many minors were found illegally employed as in the first 3 years of the act.

	Establishments in violation	*Minors illegally employed*
Total (5 years 1938–43)	4,334	12,881
First 3 years	1,055	3,681
Latter 2 years	3,279	9,200

Inspectors of the Children's Bureau, the Wage and Hour Division, and the States with cooperative agreements have all found evidence of this marked increase in child-labor violations during the war period. In spite of a considerable reduction in the number of inspections made by the Children's Bureau's own staff in the last 2 years, the number of violating establishments found in that period was 50 percent of the 1,414 violating establishments found by the Bureau's inspectors in the 5-year period, and the number of illegally employed minors was 58 percent of the total number of 7,071 illegally employed minors. Likewise, 88 percent of the 2,795 vio-

[13a] These numbers are based on violation cases closed during the period from October 24, 1938, to September 30, 1943, and do not include illegally employed minors in approximately 700 violation cases pending on October 1, 1943.

lating establishments found in the 5-year period by Wage and Hour inspectors, as well as 88 percent of the 5,585 illegally employed minors, were found in the last 2 years. A similar situation is revealed in the reports from States with cooperative agreements.

A further indication of increased child labor is the larger proportion of establishments found in violation in comparison with the total number of cases inspected and closed. In the fiscal year 1943, for example, 48 percent of the 754 Children's Bureau cases closed in which complete inspections were made were found in violation, as compared with 41 percent of the 769 cases in the fiscal year 1942 and 26 percent of the 1,429 cases in the fiscal year 1941.[14] The proportion of establishments found in violation by inspectors of the Wage and Hour Division also showed an increase of from 928 or 1 percent of the 67,438 establishments inspected in 1942 to 1,281 or 2 percent of the 56,970 establishments inspected in 1943.[15] The difference in the proportion of establishments found in violation by the staffs of the Children's Bureau and the Wage and Hour Division reflects the fact that Children's Bureau inspections are geared to cover certain types of "sore spots," namely, those establishments or industries where minors are known or believed to be employed. On the other hand, Wage and Hour inspections are directed toward "sore spots" of another type, namely, those establishments or industries which are believed to be violating the wage-and-hour provisions of the act.[15a]

Contrary to the popular belief that employment of young children is a problem of a bygone era, and that current employment of young children is limited chiefly to miscellaneous jobs in the trade and service industries, Federal inspections show that very young children are still working illegally at many operations in manufacturing and processing establishments that produce and ship goods in interstate commerce. Moreover, illegal child labor is not a problem limited to any one State or group of States. Children were found employed contrary to the child-labor provisions of the act in 47 States and in the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico.

Of the 12,881 children found working illegally during the 5-year period, 10,757 or 84 percent were under 16, and 2,124 minors or 16 percent were 16 or 17 years of age and employed contrary to hazardous-occupations orders. A substantial number of children—2,854, or 22 percent—were under 14 years of age. Even children as young as 8, 9, and 10 years of age were found working. A special analysis of the ages of 7,251 minors found working illegally in establishments inspected during the period from October 24, 1938, to June 30, 1942, showed that of the 7,000 children for whom exact ages were reported, 697 children, or 10 percent, were under 12, and 286 were under 10 years of age.

Violations of the child-labor provisions were found in virtually every major industry group in which inspections were made. The group in which were found the largest part—22 percent—of the 4,334 violating establishments comprised the canning or packing of fruits, vegetables, and sea foods, and these establishments employed 32 percent of the 12,881 minors of the oppressive child-labor age. However, more than half (52 percent) of the Children's Bureau inspections were made in the canning and packing industry, partly because of the fact that the industry has traditionally employed child labor and that experience has shown repeated inspections to be necessary to insure compliance.[16] In the fiscal year 1943, for example, almost 4 years after the act went into effect, 212, or approximately 50 percent, of the 442 establishments inspected in this industry by Children's Bureau inspectors were employing children illegally.

In the 5-year period, 4,094 children were found illegally employed in the canning and packing establishments alone; 23 percent of these children were under 14. The children under 16, some as young as 8 years of age, were peeling, cutting, pitting, and coring fruits and vegetables, heading shrimp, shucking oysters, and otherwise preparing fruits, vegetables, or sea foods for canning or packing. Others were working as graders, packers, labelers, fillers and cappers of cans and bottles, and general floor workers. In packing sheds and dry yards where the employment of 14- and 15-year-olds is permitted in certain occupations and under conditions specified in Regulation 3, many children under 14 years of age were found employed, as well as 14- and 15-year-olds who were working far in excess of the permitted hours.

[14] Percentages are based on inspections in establishments that were operating and shipping in interstate commerce at the time of inspection and in which it was possible to make complete inspections.

[15] Percentages are based on inspections in establisbments operating and shipping in interstate commerce.

[15a] Plans are now being worked out between the Children's Bureau and the Wage and Hour Division whereby Wage and Hour inspectors will take more responsibility in the future for inspections in industries and establishments where it is known that acute child-labor problems exist.

[16] Exemption from the wage-and-hour provisions of the act of all persons employed within the "area of production" in the canning, packing, or drying of agricultural and horticultural commodities for market resulted in the exclusion of some of these establishments from the jurisdiction of the Wage and Hour Division, thereby placing a major responsibility for investigation upon the Children's Bureau. The sea-food branch of the industry is entirely excluded from the wage-and-hour provisions of the act, so that the sole responsibility for child-labor enforcement has been carried by the Bureau.

Other branches of the food industry in which considerable numbers of minors were illegally employed were poultry-dressing establishments, where children worked chiefly as turkey pickers, and nutshelling establishments, where young children were found picking, grading, and shelling nuts.

The second largest number of violations (involving 710 establishments and 1,283 minors) was found in the lumber and timber products industry, one of the industries in which the Wage and Hour Division has carried on drives to effect compliance with the provisions of the act. Children under 16 were engaged in various logging and sawmilling occupations, such as "toting" slabs, stacking lumber, and peeling bark. Minors 16 and 17 years of age were also employed in sawmills and in certain prohibited occupations in the logging industry contrary to Hazardous Occupations Order No. 4. In the furniture and finished lumber products industry, where 800 minors were found illegally employed, children under 16 were performing such operations as piling box shooks, nailing boxes by hand and by machine, and sanding wood products. The older minors, those 16 and 17, as well as some under 16, were operating power-driven woodworking machines. Large numbers of minors were found illegally employed in the printing, publishing, and allied industries, the majority as newsboys.

In agriculture, which is entirely exempted from the wage-and-hour provisions of the act, the Bureau has been unable to make more than a beginning in its enforcement program, both because of lack of staff, and because of the great difficulties in administration arising from the fact that the application of the child-labor provisions is limited by the varying compulsory school-attendance requirements of the States. Nevertheless, 489 children under 16 years of age, more than half under 14, were found working illegally during periods when the State law required their attendance at school; they were picking cranberries, pulling radishes, cutting spinach, picking cotton, raking pine, and "toting cups" on turpentine farms, and working as general laborers.

In other industries, as well as in some of those already mentioned, minors were illegally employed as assemblers, packers, wrappers, folders, trimmers, finishers, sewing and other machine operators, motor-vehicle drivers and helpers, floor boys, errand and delivery boys, stock boys, and general helpers and laborers.

The following table shows in greater detail the industries in which violations were found during the 5-year period.

Establishments in violation and minors found employed contrary to the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act,[1] by industry—Oct. 24, 1938–Sept. 30, 1943

Industry	Establishments	Minors
Total	4,334	12,881
Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries	110	490
Apparel and other finished products made from fabrics, etc	346	715
Chemicals and allied products	73	276
Explosives, ammunition, and fireworks	19	182
Other chemical and allied products	54	94
Coal mining	44	107
Food and kindred products	1,319	5,188
Canning or packing fruits, vegetables, other farm products, and sea foods	965	4,094
Canning or packing fruits, vegetables, and other farm products	848	3,216
Canning or packing sea foods	117	878
Nutshelling	54	257
Poultry dressing	55	381
Other food	245	456
Furniture and other finished lumber products	261	800
Iron, steel, and their products	118	233
Leather and leather products	68	183
Lumber and timber basic products	710	1,283
Paper and allied products	76	172
Printing, publishing, and allied industries	182	1,178
Textile-mill products	131	365
Transportation, communication, and other public utilities	73	160
Wholesale trade (excluding assemblers of farm and sea products)	267	410
All other industries	556	1,321

[1] Includes violations found in establishments inspected by the Children's Bureau, the Wage and Hour Division, and States with Federal-State cooperative agreements.

Of especial significance to the protection of young workers from industrial hazards are the inspections made to bring about compliance with the six hazardous-occupations orders establishing a minimum age of 18 years. A total of 2,124 minors 16 and 17 years of age were found employed contrary to these orders. In addition, approximately 400 minors under 16 years were found working in these prohibited occupations.

Of the 2,124 minors 16 and 17 years of age who were working contrary to the orders, 784 were employed as motor-vehicle drivers and helpers, 595 were operating power-driven woodworking machines, 502 were employed in various logging occupations and as workers in sawmills, 169 were working in the explosives, ammunition, and fireworks industry, 66 were in prohibited coal-mining occupations, and 8 were in occupations involving exposure to radioactive substances. The minors under 16 who were employed in these hazardous occupations were working chiefly as motor-vehicle drivers or helpers, in logging or sawmilling, and as operators of power-driven woodworking machines.

During the first 3 years of the act no restrictions under the Fair Labor Standards Act were

placed on the distribution of industrial home work—a system that has always been connected with child labor. Up to June 30, 1942, Federal inspectors found almost 900 children under 16 years of age working illegally in their homes. Many were very young—20 percent were under 10 years of age, 37 percent under 12, and 62 percent under 14. The children were making artificial flowers, carding pins and buttons, caning chairs, crocheting shade pulls, cutting lace, making games of chance and other paper novelties, inserting pins on ribbon bows, buckling shoulder straps, stuffing toys and powder puffs, stripping tobacco, and hand-sewing on varied articles.

During the past 2 years steps have been taken by the administrator of the Wage and Hour Division under the authority of the act to eliminate industrial home work in those industries in which its continuance threatens the established wage rate. The wage orders issued for seven major home-work industries—jewelry, gloves and mittens, knitted outerwear, apparel, buttons and buckles, handkerchiefs, and embroideries [17]—all include conditions that restrict the employment of industrial home workers. Nevertheless, home work still persists in a number of industries, and so long as it remains it will continue to present a threat to both wage-and-hour and child-labor standards, and to present almost insuperable difficulties in enforcement.

Enforcement and Court Action

The Bureau has consistently sought to effect compliance wherever possible through educational means. Throughout the early years of administration legal action was taken only in cases of wilful or repeated violations. For the majority of employers a warning against further violations was found to be sufficient. There have been, however, unscrupulous employers who were willing to take the risk involved in employing illegal child labor, and for these legal action was the only preventive against future violations. There were also employers who in violating the act indicated such gross negligence or careless disregard for its requirements that legal action was necessary. Now that the act has been in effect for more than 5 years, and most employers therefore have had an opportunity to become familiar with its provisions, more frequent recourse to legal action in case of violations will undoubtedly be necessary in the future to ensure compliance.

Two types of court action are provided for by the act for dealing with violators—civil action through injunction proceedings and criminal prosecution. The latter may subject the employer to fine or imprisonment or both. In the injunction proceedings judgment in the form of a court decree may be entered against the employer, requiring him to comply with the law, and if the terms of the decree are violated the employer is subject to proceedings for contempt of court.

During the 5-year period 182 legal cases (157 civil, 24 criminal, and 1 criminal contempt), involving violations in 33 States and in more than 30 industries, were concluded.[18] In addition, 9 civil cases, 7 criminal cases, and 1 criminal-contempt case were pending in court as of October 1, 1943. There has been a marked increase in the past few years in the number of legal actions instituted by the Bureau. Almost three times as many legal cases were closed in the last 2 years as were closed in the entire previous period of operation under the act.

In only 2 of these legal actions has the decision of the court been unfavorable to the Bureau. Injunctions were obtained in 156 of the 157 civil suits, and convictions were obtained in all but 1 of the 24 criminal suits as well as in the 1 action involving criminal-contempt proceedings. Of special significance is the fact that only 2 of the civil suits were contested, and that in 155 suits the injunctions were obtained by consent decrees; that is, the employer voluntarily agreed to comply, and his agreement became a matter of court record. In the 2 contested civil suits an injunction was granted in one and denied in the other.

In many of the criminal actions in which convictions were obtained the courts have levied heavy fines; in one case a total fine of $5,000 was imposed for child-labor violations involved. The highest fine, $15,000, was imposed for violation of both the child-labor and the wage-and-hour provisions of the act.

Not only have these heavy fines imposed by the courts undoubtedly served as a deterrent to many would-be violators, but the close of the 5-year period saw the conclusion of the first major case involving the interpertation of the child-labor provisions of the act. This was a decision handed down on October 7, 1943, by the United States District Court for the Southern District of New York,[19] sustaining the applicability of the child-labor provisions to tele-

[17] The effective date of the regulations restricting home work in the embroideries industry has been postponed from November 15, 1943, to March 31, 1944.

[18] In addition, civil action was instituted in 2 cases but was withdrawn prior to trial.

[19] *Lenroot* v. *Western Union Telegraph Co.*

graph messengers, thus upholding a minimum age of 16 for such messengers.[20]

Looking to the Future

Five years of enforcement of the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act have shown that a basic 16-year minimum-age standard for employment of children is practicable as well as desirable. The general acceptance of this Federal child-labor legislation by employers and the public in the pre-war years, evidenced by the comparatively few violations found and the wholehearted cooperation of State and local agencies in its enforcement, has demonstrated that this standard is attainable on a national basis. Its acceptance has meant better opportunity for the education and the healthful growth of children that is a foundation for better development of the future citizens of the Nation.

These standards are now being put to the test by the pressures of war. The degree to which they have withstood these pressures is evidence of a continuing public conviction of the value of child-labor standards in wartime as well as in peacetime. The application of this Federal legislation during the past 2 years, difficult as these years have been, has helped to lessen the dangers to health, education, and general welfare of children and youth involved in the current trend toward their greatly increased employment. But there are many difficulties in the road ahead. Adequate child-labor inspections and good certificate-issuance practice under this Federal law, underpinning State standards as they do, have never been more needed than in this war period when the widening scope of child employment threatens to break down the child-labor gains attained after many years of struggle. The administration of Federal and State child-labor laws should be so planned and carried out now that the years following the war will see a strengthening of such standards and wider and better educational opportunities for youth.

[20] The court granted an injunction restraining the company from continuing its violations of the act, but upon motion of the company the injunction has been stayed pending appeal.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

• INTER-AMERICAN COOPERATION •

Costa Rica

Amendment of the Constitution

A new section, entitled "Social Guarantees," was added in July 1943 to the Political Constitution of Costa Rica, placing on the State the duty of providing special protection for the family, the mother, and the child. The new section prescribes maximum working hours—an 8-hour day and 48-hour week—for all workers, manual or other, with payment for overtime work and annual vacations with pay for all workers, whether manual or other workers. The State is to aid low-cost housing projects and vocational training of workers. A system of social insurance for all types of workers, with compulsory contributions from the State, the employers, and the workers is to be established.

Enactment of First Labor Code

The labor laws of Costa Rica, including those on the employment of women and children, have been recently codified, and the code became effective on September 15, 1943. Heretofore, employment of children was regulated by the Children's Code of 1932 and the general labor law of 1937: the child-labor provisions of both these laws have been incorporated, with slight modifications, into the Labor Code.

Employment, except in farm work, is still prohibited for children under 12 and those over 12 but under 14 who have not completed the required school course; apparently there is no minimum age for farm work. Exemptions from the minimum-age requirement are permitted in cases of poverty, provided the work is light and is not likely to affect the child's physical, mental, or moral development; also the child must continue to attend school until he finishes the minimum course prescribed by law. Permits for such exemptions are issued by the Patronato Nacional de la Infancia (National Children's Bureau) or its provincial branches.

Like the Children's Code of 1932 the new law prohibits the employment in street trades of boys under 15 and unmarried girls under 18. For public performances, whether on the stage

or over the radio, the minimum age is 15 years. For employment in places where alcoholic drinks are served, or on work which is physically or morally harmful or dangerous, it is 18 years.

The maximum hours of work remain unchanged: 5 hours daily and 30 hours weekly for children under 15; 7 hours daily and 42 hours weekly for persons between 15 and 18; and 8 hours daily and 48 hours weekly for adults.

Night work is prohibited for persons under 18.

Registers, similar to those required under the old laws, must be kept of workers under 18 years of age.

The regulations on the employment of mothers have been changed to comply with the recently enacted social-insurance law. The prohibition of the employment of women for 4 weeks before confinement and 4 weeks afterward, found in the Children's Code of 1932, has been incorporated into the Labor Code of 1943, with the leave increased to 30 days in each of these two periods and with payment during that time of maternity benefits from the social-insurance funds. The benefits are paid on the condition that the woman give up her employment for the period of her leave. Employers must allow the women time to nurse their children; day nurseries must be set up at the employers' expense in establishments with more than 30 women.

The law is to be administered by the Bureau of Labor Inspection of the National Department of Labor and Social Welfare.

Brazil

School of Social Service for Men

A School of Social Service for men only was opened in August 1943 at the Catholic University in Rio de Janeiro. The regular course of the school consists of 2 years of theoretical study followed by 1 year of practical social work in a public or private agency.

To meet wartime needs, an emergency course of 3 months will also be given; in this course theoretical instruction will be combined with visits to welfare agencies.

For admission to the regular course, the applicant must have completed secondary education and present evidence of physical, mental, and moral fitness.

Informational literature issued by the Catholic University, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, 1943.

• GENERAL CHILD WELFARE •

BOOK NOTES

THE LAW OF GUARDIAN AND WARD WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE CHILDREN OF VETERANS, by S. P. Breckinridge and Mary Stanton. Reprint from *Social Service Review*, Vol. 17, No. 3 (September 1943), pp. 265–302. (University of Chicago Press, 5750 Ellis Ave., Chicago, $1 for 5 copies.)

Guardianship of children, the authors point out, becomes a subject of wide interest in wartime, when casualties suddenly increase and the number of children orphaned is swiftly multiplied. For "the children of parents who lose their lives in the defense of the country, so that they are thought of to an extent as being wards of the State, it becomes imperative to discover whether or not the private relationship is adequate or whether more adequate public provision should be made."

In Part 1 current guardianship procedures are summarized on the basis of information obtained from 25 State departments of social work as to general legal and social-service procedure and its application to minors who are Federal beneficiaries or State beneficiaries, with evaluations and recommendations. Part 2 is a historical survey of veterans' legislation and the law of guardianship as they apply to the children of veterans.

SOCIAL SECURITY YEARBOOK, 1942. Social Security Board, Federal Security Agency, Washington, 1943. 216 pp.

The Social Security Yearbook for 1942 contains a discussion of social security and the national economy, data for 1942 on social-insurance beneficiaries and benefits, public aid (including aid to dependent children), and financial aspects of social security. Useful features for reference include a calendar of significant developments, tabular data on insurance and assistance under the Social Security Act, and a list of references classified by subject.

It is stated that the "increase in the demand for labor in 1942 and increased ability of relatives to support children were reflected in a decline of 36 percent in the number of applications for aid to dependent children received in 1942 as compared with 1941 in the States administering Federal-State programs of aid to dependent children throughout both years."

• SAFEGUARDING THE HEALTH OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN •

MIDWIFE-INSTRUCTION CLASS IN SOUTH CAROLINA

Midwife Sallie Ruth Writes to the South Carolina State Board of Health

To the Officers of the State Board of Health—

Dear Officers: While thinking of my work at the prenatal clinic on tomorrow a thought came to me—What am I to do and how can I work tomorrow without our Dr. Johnson, M. D., or what will my family do, or what will become of our expecting mothers, as we have so many each clinic day. I have always prepared the patient on the table for Dr. Johnson to examine. I am just wondering who will meet me there on tomorrow. Will they not be any one but Mrs. Carter and Mrs. Parker and myself? I am trusting that the Lord will provide for us another doctor to fill Dr. Johnson's space. Can we get another doctor just like him? I won't say no, but I am afraid.

Dr. Johnson was my family doctor. In my family is the number of 22 including myself, my husband, my children, and my grandchildren. He has doctored us all when he was needed. I have been working with him on labor cases ever since I attend the midwife classes in 1928 and secure a midwife certificate. If I call Dr. Johnson—midnight, 2 o'clock, 3 o'clock he would

come. I call him at 3 o'clock one night to a patient having a hemorrhage after her baby. I say, tell doctor this patient is bleeding. Dr. Johnson came with his house shoes on and his suit of clothes over his pajama suit. He said on his arrival, you all pardon me for not having on my shoes. He said, if Mum Sallie send for me and say come quick, I know things are serious.

Dr. Johnson was kind. He was loving with every boddie. He treat both white and colored so nice, until the news began ringing on new year day that he was dead. No boddie wanted to believe it. Just before day on new year morning while riding along on his horse on a fox chase he fell from his saddle and never spoke a murming word. We all feel like weeping Marys and morning Martha. If weeping could bring him back he would have been back before now. I won't say any more about the great life saver, one who has saved so many mothers' and babies' lives. I wrote this little song—always remember it's dedicated to Dr. Johnson. He was so humble. The song goes like this—

Wherever I—whatever I do
I will answer
When my Lord call I will answer
Wherever I—whatever I do
I will answer the sick
I will answer—on the Highway—
I will answer.
Lord, anywhere I be I will answer—

He answer to the call of the great Jehovah on January the first; I can imagine him saying, Lord, here am I.

If I had a thousand tongues I could not tell of all his good work and kind deeds. Will close by saying my heart is sad because we have lost our wonder physician, Dr. Johnson, one who was kind, one who I always obey. I did all he say do and never lost a mother from 1928 to this day.

Midwife Sallie Ruth.

• EVENTS OF CURRENT INTEREST •

Servicemen's Dependents Allowance Act of 1942 Liberalized

An act approved October 26, 1943 (78th Cong., 1st sess., Public Law 174) effective November 1, 1943, extends the Servicemen's Dependents Allowance Act of 1942 to dependents of enlisted men in the first through the seventh grade and of enlisted women in these grades. (The original act applied only to dependents of men in the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh grades.)

The dependents of an enlisted woman receive the same allowances as dependents in similar relation to an enlisted man and receive them under the same conditions, except that the husband and children of an enlisted woman, as with parents, brothers, and sisters of either men or women, receive the allowances only when found by the Secretary of the Department concerned to be dependent upon the woman for chief support.

Allowances were increased by increasing the amount paid by the Government. The new allowance for a wife and one child is $80, with $20 for each additional child; for a child but no wife, $42, with $20 for each additional child; for a former wife divorced and one child, $72. with $20 for each additional child.

Special Training for Police Work With Juveniles

What special training is needed for police who work with children and youth, and how such training can be provided, was considered by police officials, sheriffs, and others interested in the problem, at a small conference held at the Children's Bureau November 20 and 21, 1943.

Emphasized in the discussion of this problem was the great need for closer working relationships in local communities between social-welfare and law-enforcement agencies, and the further coordination and development of social services for juveniles who come to the attention of the police.

The Children's Bureau was requested by the conference to assume responsibility for further exploring the extent of the need of training courses and for developing both emergency and continuing plans for training policemen and policewomen to deal with juveniles.

Among the groups represented at the conference were the International Association of Chiefs of Police; the National Sheriffs' Association; and the Division of Social Protection, Office of Community War Services.

Conference on Services for Negro Children

Invitations over the signatures of the Chief of the Children's Bureau and the Chairman of the Children's Bureau Commission on Children in Wartime have been sent out for a Conference on Services for Negro Children to be held December 6 and 7.

The tentative program for the conference includes a review of Children's Bureau programs and their effectiveness for Negro children, discussion of special problems accentuated by the war, administrative policies and measures in regard to services for Negro children, and opportunities for further action by the Bureau and the agencies with which it is associated.

Death of Mary Irene Atkinson

Child-welfare workers and handicapped children throughout the country have lost a devoted friend and counselor through the death of Mary Irene Atkinson, which occurred at her home in Green Springs, Ohio, on November 7.

The Children's Bureau was fortunate to have Miss Atkinson as Director of its Child Welfare Division from 1935 until her last illness. She was a distinguished pioneer in the development of the Bureau's work under the Social Security Act, having joined its staff shortly after the act was passed on August 14, 1935, and then for 8 years guided the growth and extension of child-welfare services under the act throughout all the States, Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico, and the District of Columbia.

Her great sensitiveness to and awareness of the problems confronting State governments in assuming new responsibilities for children contributed greatly to the building of this program on a sound and lasting foundation.

Before coming to the Bureau Miss Atkinson had acquired a broad knowledge of child-welfare conditions in the country as a member of the staff of the Child Welfare League of America, and later as Director of the Division of Charities, Ohio State Department of Public Welfare. She was a regional representative of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration prior to assuming her duties with us.

Her warm and vibrant personality made her greatly beloved by people everywhere she went. As a speaker, she had unusual effectiveness in presenting the cause of children and in arousing public concern for them. For these and many other reasons, Miss Atkinson was uniquely fitted for the work she did for the Children's Bureau. We shall miss her devotion and guidance profoundly.

—Katharine F. Lenroot.

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Social Statistics

JUVENILE-COURT STATISTICS, 1940-42

Supplement to Vol. 8, No. 6 (December 1943) of THE CHILD

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY

CHILDREN'S BUREAU
KATHARINE F. LENROOT, CHIEF

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JUVENILE-COURT STATISTICS, 1940-42[1]

The year 1942 is the sixteenth successive calendar year for which the Children's Bureau has collected statistics on juvenile-delinquency cases disposed of by courts. Although this series does not furnish a complete picture of juvenile delinquency for the years concerned, it does furnish the most comprehensive body of information for these years now available. The figures for the different years represent some variation in the courts reporting, but in general the number of courts and the population represented have grown--from 43 courts in 1927, representing about 15 percent of the population of the United States, to 471 courts in 1942, representing more than 35 percent.

More than nine-tenths of the courts included for 1942 reported through a State-wide system sponsored by a State agency;[3] these courts were located in eight States: Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Ohio, Indiana, Missouri, and Utah. The remaining courts, in 19 States and the District of Columbia, reported directly to the Children's Bureau.

TABULAR MATERIAL IN THIS REPORT

The location of the areas served by all the courts that reported in 1940 (514 courts), or in 1941 (540 courts), or in 1942 (471 courts), is shown in table 1, which classifies by race the boys' and girls' cases disposed of in each of these 3 years.[4] The cases disposad of have not been totaled in this table, as comparison of such totals would be meaningless on account of the variation among the 3 years in the courts reporting.

The effect of rapid changes in population upon the number of juvenile-delinquency cases in war-impact areas is suggested in table 2, which shows the number of cases disposed of in 1940, 1941, and 1942 by a number of courts serving areas with large populations, with the areas divided into two groups--areas where the population increased and those where it decreased from 1940 to 1942.

The nature of the changes that took place in juvenile-delinquency cases between 1940 and 1942 is suggested in tables 3 to 7; these tables analyze the cases disposed of by 26 courts that reported on individual cases for 1940, 1941, and 1942.[5] In these tables the figures for boys' and girls' cases, by race, are analyzed in detail in relation to reason for reference to court and disposition of case, as well as age of child when referred to court, previous court experience, and source of reference to court. In tables 8 and 9 the figures for cases disposed of by the 26 courts are analyzed--for 1942 only--for certain geographic divisions of the United States, in relation to some of these items.

WAR-IMPACT AREAS AND JUVENILE-DELINQUENCY CASES

With the outbreak of the present war it was anticipated, chiefly on the basis of experience during the first World War and the more recent experience in Great Britain, that juvenile delinquency in the United States would increase. Some indication of the effect of the war on the number of juvenile-delinquency cases disposed of by courts may be obtained by comparing the number of cases reported by courts serving areas where the population increased during the war years[6] with the number reported by courts serving areas where the population decreased--areas that as a rule were less affected by war conditions.

Reports were available for 83 courts serving areas of 100,000 or more population. Of these areas 41 had increased in population in 1942 over 1940, and the cases disposed of by these courts were compared with those disposed of by the remaining 42, which served areas that had decreased in population. (Table 2.) The number of juvenile-delinquency cases disposed of by the total 83 courts rose by 16 percent between 1940 and 1942. In the 41 areas where the population increased, the cases rose 18 percent, in contrast to only 9 percent in the 42 areas where the population decreased.

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[1] Report prepared in the Division of Statistical Research by Sophia M. Robison, Consultant on Juvenile Delinquency, and Edward E. Schwartz, Director.

[2] The last report on juvenile-court statistics prior to this one was entitled "Children in the Courts, 1938 and 1939" (Children's Bureau Publication No. 280, Washington, 1942. 27 pp.).

[3] Courts reporting under a State-wide plan report directly to the State agency concerned with juvenile-court work or probation service, which then forwards the data to the Children's Bureau.

[4] The unit of count for these statistics is a case disposed of by the juvenile court. If a court disposes of more than one case for the same child, referred on a separate complaint, each such case is counted separately.

[5] Tables showing, in summary form, data for a majority of the courts reporting in 1942, are in the files of the Children's Bureau and are available for reference at the Bureau.

[6] Commenting upon population changes in certain counties in which the population increased in 1942 over 1940, the Bureau of the Census states: "In the main, these are the counties that have had more than average wartime activity in connection with shipyards, aircraft factories, munition plants, other heavy industry, and military establishments." (Bureau of the Census: Population; Estimates of the Civilian Population by Counties, May 1, 1942, p. 1. Series P-3, No. 33. Washington, Feb. 25, 1943.)

Areas	Percentage increases in delinquency cases disposed of; 83 courts								
	1940 to 1941			1941 to 1942			1940 to 1942		
	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls
83 areas..	8	7	13	7	4	22	18	11	38
41 areas where population increased.....	9	6	15	8	5	23	18	14	40
42 areas where population decreased.....	3	2	9	5	2	20	9	4	30

The percentage rise in juvenile-delinquency cases disposed of in the areas where the population increased was greater from both 1940 to 1941 and 1941 to 1942 than in the areas where it decreased. As it is probable that variations in the child population were insignificant compared with the increases in juvenile-delinquency cases, this analysis of the reports from 83 courts indicates that in the growing war-production centers delinquency was accentuated by wartime conditions.

From 1940 to 1941 and from 1941 to 1942, in both types of areas, the percentage rises for girls' cases were greater than those for boys' cases. In the areas of increasing population the percentage rise from 1941 to 1942 was smaller for boys but larger for girls than the comparable rise from 1940 to 1941. In the areas of decreasing population the percentage rise for boys' cases from 1941 to 1942 was the same as it was from 1940 to 1941; for girls' cases it was more than twice as large. There was less difference between the two types of areas in percentage rises, for both boys' and girls' cases, from 1941 to 1942 than from 1940 to 1941.

When the reports for the 83 courts are combined, the increases in juvenile-delinquency cases from 1940 to 1942 are striking, but not all these courts reported such increases. In 19 of the 83 courts there were fewer cases of delinquency in 1942 than in 1940; and 5 of these courts served communities in areas with increasing populations--San Diego, Calif.; Dayton, Canton, and Cincinnati, Ohio; and Shreveport, La.

Nor were the increases consistent for boys' and girls' cases reported in areas in which other large cities are located. The Wayne County (Detroit), Mich., court reported 150 more boys' cases in 1941 than in 1940, but only 105 more in 1942 than in 1940--a net increase in boys' cases of 6 percent from 1940 to 1942; girls' cases in the same court increased by 136--approximately 63 percent--from 1940 to 1942. The Erie County (Buffalo), N. Y., court had 185 fewer boys' cases in 1942 than in 1941; girls' cases increased from 96 in 1940 to 136 in 1941 and then decreased to 130 in 1942. In Allegheny County (Pittsburgh), Pa., although the number of girls' cases increased, 10 fewer boys' cases were disposed of by the court in 1942 than in 1940. In Dade County (Miami), Fla., boys' cases dropped from 545 to 487 between 1940 and 1942, but girls' cases rose from 125 in 1940 to 148 in 1942. In Spokane County (Spokane), Wash., boys' cases rose from 391 to 470 between 1940 and 1941 but dropped to 389 in 1942, while the number of girls' cases for the 3-year period was 90, 89, and 114 respectively.

DATA FROM COURTS SERVING CERTAIN NONURBAN AREAS

If courts other than those in large urban areas are considered, it becomes even more evident that the increase in juvenile-delinquency cases was far from universal. Comparable reports for 1940 and 1942 are available for 130 courts serving small cities, towns, or rural areas in Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, and Rhode Island. In 49 of these courts the number of juvenile-delinquency cases decreased; in 73 they increased; and in 8 the number remained the same. In 37 of the 130 courts both boys' and girls' cases increased; in 19 both boys' and girls' cases decreased; and in 4 no change occurred in either group. In more than half of the courts (70) there were increases for cases of one sex and decreases or no change for the other.

TWENTY-SIX COURTS THAT REPORTED ON INDIVIDUAL CASES

Twenty-six courts that reported on individual cases for each of the 3 years 1940, 1941, and 1942 provide a basis for discussion of several conclusions presented in previous Children's Bureau reports on juvenile-court statistics,[7] especially for the period 1934-39. Because, as table 3 shows, these courts represent only seven of the nine geographic divisions of the United States, and only a few of the principal cities, detailed comparisons will not be made in this report. The data shown in these tables, however, provide a springboard for certain queries that need to be answered if understanding of the extent and nature of delinquency is to be furthered. In the main these data agree with the data for the earlier years, as will be noted in the following sections.

The figures for the earlier years showed that among boys' cases the most frequent reason for reference to court was stealing, and among girls' cases ungovernable behavior; that the most frequent disposition of cases was "Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action"; that the age group in which the largest number of delinquents fell was 14 years of age and over; and that the most frequent source of reference was the police.

[7] These comparisons were made with percentage distributions shown in summary tables or derived from source tables presented in previous reports of the Children's Bureau. As will be seen by reference to the previous reports, the number of courts reporting varied from year to year.

Race and Sex of Child.

More boys' than girls' cases were disposed of by the 26 courts in 1940, 1941, and 1942, but the rate of increase between 1940 and 1942 among the boys' cases was smaller than that among the girls'. In the earlier years of reporting (1934-39) the ratio of boys' to girls' cases was about six to one. In 1942 the ratio dropped, and for the 26 courts was closer to five to one.

Among the cases reported by the 26 courts there were proportionately more cases of Negro than of white children both in 1940 and in 1942 if the two groups are considered in relation to the total number of each race in the population. However, the percentage increase from 1940 to 1942 among the cases of white children was more than 2½ times that among the Negro children.[8] The percentage increase among white girls was about twice that among Negro girls, and the increase among white boys more than three times that among Negro boys.

Age of Child.

In both 1940 and 1942 less than 5 percent of the cases disposed of by the 26 courts were those of children who were under 10 years of age when referred to court; 25 to 30 percent were cases of children 10 to 13, and the remainder were 14 or over. (Table 4.) This was approximately the same distribution as in the earlier years. Relatively few juvenile courts have jurisdiction over young people who have attained their eighteenth birthday.

Reason for Reference to Court and Disposition of Case.

In 1940 and in 1942, as in the earlier years, stealing accounted for most of the boys' cases referred to the courts. Of the cases disposed of by the 26 courts, 50 percent were referred for this reason in 1940 and 43 percent in 1942. Among girls' cases the percentage referred for stealing, although somewhat higher than in the earlier years, was in every year much lower than the percentage of boys' cases so referred; the percentage for girls' cases was 17 in 1940 and 16 in 1942.

Acts of carelessness or mischief, as in the earlier years, ranked second for boys--20 percent of the total boys' cases in 1940; 19 percent in 1942; for girls' cases this reason for reference accounted for only 10 percent of the cases in both 1940 and 1942.

As in the earlier years ungovernable behavior was the chief reason for which girls' cases were referred to court in 1940 and 1942. The percentage of girls' cases referred for this reason plus those referred for running away was 42 in 1940 and 44 in 1942; in the earlier years the percentege ranged from 41 to 50. In contrast, only about 9 to 10 percent of the boys' cases in 1940 and 1942 were referred for these two reasons; in the earlier years the range was from 9 to 14 percent. These two reasons for reference, together with sex offenses, accounted for almost 60 percent of the girls' cases in 1940 and in 1942. (Ungovernable behavior, running away, and sex offense must be considered in connection with one another because ungovernable behavior and running away frequently involve sex offenses, and also because some courts use the term "ungovernable behavior" to avoid recording a sex offense in official records.)

Small changes in the distribution of the reasons for referral of boys' and girls' cases to court in the different years do not in themselves throw much light on changes in types of misbehavior. If, however, there is a relation between the disposition of cases and the reason for their reference to court, an increase in the proportion of dismissals may be interpreted as reflecting an increase in the number of cases referred to court for comparatively slight offenses. The percentages of cases referred to the 26 courts (table 5) for stealing, acts of carelessness or mischief, and ungovernable behavior or running away, which were dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action in 1940 and 1942 are as follows:

Reason for reference	Percentage of cases disposed of that were dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action; 26 courts							
	1940				1942			
	Boys		Girls		Boys		Girls	
	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro
Stealing.....	52	48	45	49	52	47	49	85
Act of carelessness or mischief..	84	75	78	82	86	73	79	77
Ungovernable behavior or running away.	28	32	30	37	24	28	28	37

The differences in the proportions of cases that were dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action, among white and Negro girls referred for stealing and for ungovernable behavior or running away are marked in 1942. Although part of the explanation for the larger proportion of cases of Negro girls so disposed of may be a paucity of services for them in some communities, the data may also indicate that Negro girls are referred to court far more frequently than white girls in cases for which there is less evidence of serious misbehavior. The high proportion of cases so disposed of, among both girls and boys

[8] Included among the Negro children is a small number of other nonwhite children, such as Indian, Chinese, and Japanese.

whose cases were referred for acts of carelessness or mischief, suggests that in many of these cases there may have been no need in the first place for reference to court.

Source of Reference to Court and Reason for Reference.

Children are directly referred to juvenile courts, not only by the police, but by parents, school authorities, and social agencies. The proportion of both boys' and girls' cases referred by the police was higher in 1940 and in 1942 than in the earlier years.[9] In 1940, for the 26 courts, this percentage was 82 for boys' cases and 52 for girls', and by 1942 the comparable percentages had become 83 for boys and 57 for girls. (Table 4.)

When the reasons for reference to court are studied in relation to the source of reference the large percentage of cases referred by the police for stealing and for acts of carelessness or mischief, as compared with the percentages referred by the police for other reasons, is noticeable. (Table 6.)

In 1940, among the boys' cases referred for stealing, 90 percent of the white boys' cases and 93 percent of the Negro boys' were referred by the police; in 1942 the comparable percentages were 92 and 95. In both years more than 80 percent of the boys' cases referred for acts of carelessness or mischief were referred by the police.

Among the girls' cases also the police were increasingly important as the source of reference. In 1940 the police were the source of reference for 81 percent of the girls' cases referred for stealing, and in 1942, of 87 percent, but among the cases referred for acts of carelessness or mischief the percentage was lower: 64 percent in 1940 and 73 percent in 1942.

Ungovernable behavior and running away are generally recognized as conduct of a different order from acts against property, such as stealing. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that parents or relatives continued to be a more important source of reference in cases of this type, particularly in girls' cases, than in cases referred for other reasons.

Disposition of Case and Source of Reference to Court.

In the earlier years slightly more than 45 percent of the cases disposed of by the courts were dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action; in more than 30 percent of the cases the child was placed on probation; in 10 percent he was committed to an institution or referred to it without formal commitment; and the remaining cases were listed under "other dispositions." In 1940 and in 1942 among the cases disposed of by the 26 courts the percentage of cases dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action was much greater--56 in each of these years. The proportion of cases in which the child was committed or referred to an institution in 1940 and in 1942 was 9 percent and 8 percent respectively for the boys' cases, and 14 percent in both years for the girls' (table 4); in the earlier years of reporting (1934-1939) the boys' percentages ranged from 8 to 11 and the girls' from 13 to 20.

When analysis is done by race (table 7) it appears that in both 1940 and 1942 a somewhat higher proportion of the dismissals of cases of Negro boys (89 percent) than of white boys (about 85 percent) were cases referred by the police. Also a higher proportion of the dismissals of cases of Negro girls (60 percent) than of white girls (51 percent) were police referrals.

The question arises as to whether some police officers are more likely to bring Negro children to court for stealing than white children.

Also, to what extent does unequal provision of community services for white and Negro children determine the disposition made by the court of cases of white and Negro children? Another obvious question is: What part do factors such as the area of residence of children and the number of police provided play in the apprehension of children engaging in suspicious or apparently antisocial behavior?

Previous Court Experience of Child.

Among the cases disposed of by the 26 courts, in both 1940 and 1942, the proportion of cases for both boys and girls, especially for boys, in which the child had had previous court experience was greater among children of foreign or mixed parentage and among Negro children than among white children of native parentage. The percentages are as follows:

Race and parentage	Percentage of cases disposed of in which child had had previous court experience; 26 courts			
	1940		1942	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
White				
Native parentage.....	36	23	34	25
Foreign or mixed parentage..	52	31	51	37
Negro and other nonwhite....	50	25	45	28

In this connection, however, it should be realized that differences in community attitudes may sometimes determine whether one group of children is referred to court more than another. Other factors also, of course, influence the incidence of recidivism, such as family income, neighborhood of residence, and other social and

[9] The earliest year for which data on source of reference were available for boys and girls separately was 1937.

economic factors that are related to delinquency in general; but data on these are not available for the children whose cases are reported in these statistics.

Regional Differences.

Tables 8 and 9 show, for 1942 only, differences among certain geographic divisions of the United States with regard to white and Negro boys' and girls' cases, classified according to reason for reference to court, source of reference, and disposition of case. Of the many observations that might be made, the most striking concern the proportions of white and Negro girls' cases referred to the court for certain reasons in 1942 in different parts of the country. In the East North Central Division the proportion of Negro girls' cases referred for sex offenses was the same as that for stealing--20 percent. In the South Atlantic Division, in contrast, sex offense was the reason for reference in only 6 percent of the Negro girls' cases, as compared with 27 percent for stealing. The question arises: Do regional differences in attitudes toward specific types of behavior affect the referral of children to the court?

LIMITATIONS OF JUVENILE-COURT STATISTICS

Such questions as those raised in the preceding paragraphs emphasize the difficulties of making meaningful comparisons between communities on the extent of juvenile delinquency, based upon juvenile-court statistics. These statistics are better adapted for comparison of the same community from year to year, but even in such comparison care is necessary. If a child is caught violating the law and his case is referred to the juvenile court, the case is counted in the court's statistics of juvenile delinquency. If another child likewise violates the law but is not caught, or is dealt with informally by the police, or is referred by the police to a social agency, his case is not included in the statistics. Because in the juvenile-court laws delinquency is so loosely defined that it covers the whole gamut of undesirable behavior, many of the acts for which children are referred to juvenile courts are obviously of a very different character from what is usually considered lawbreaking. Reasons for referral may range from ungovernable behavior to assault; from using obscene language to stealing large sums of money; from hitching on street cars to unlawful entry; from riding a bicycle on the sidewalk to robbery.

Nor are all the cases that might appropriately come before the juvenile court referred to it. In some communities other agencies assume responsibility for children whose cases might otherwise appear in the statistics. In consequence the chances that juveniles will be brought to court are affected by extraneous considerations that may not operate in the case of adults who break the law. The increasing proportion of referrals by the police, especially noticeable for girls' cases, suggests that part of the increase in juvenile delinquency as measured by court cases may be due to increased attention of the police to behavior which they may have previously ignored. Juvenile-delinquency statistics as now obtained are limited to cases that reach the courts, and therefore they are affected by the varying procedures mentioned. Juvenile-court statistics on delinquency do not necessarily reflect the extent and nature of a given kind of behavior and cannot, therefore, be used alone to substantiate belief in the existence of an over-all rise in the kind of behavior about which a community should be concerned.

IMPROVEMENT OF JUVENILE-DELINQUENCY STATISTICS

Strengthening of statistics on juvenile delinquency requires an extension of the coverage of the data in two directions. Wider coverage than is provided in an accounting of cases known to the juvenile court is desirable in any community in which other agencies share with the court the responsibility for handling children whose behavior is delinquent. Reports are needed particularly on the part played by the police in bringing to or keeping from the court children who they believe are delinquent. Wide coverage in reporting by agencies other than the juvenile court would encourage emphasis on classification of the kinds of behavior exhibited and on the characteristics of the child rather than on the fact of appearance before the juvenile court.

Wider coverage, in a geographic sense, in the Nation-wide reporting of juvenile-court statistics is also needed. The Children's Bureau juvenile-court series includes a relatively large number of courts in the northeastern part of the United States and a comparatively small number of courts in other parts of the country. To be representative of the country as a whole, fuller reporting is also needed from courts in rural areas, particularly those in the southern and western parts of the United States. This need may well be met by the development of State-wide reporting of juvenile-court statistics by State departments of public welfare or other State departments. The cooperation of the eight States in which juvenile-court reports are now being collected on a State-wide basis and the interest of the States in improving the quality of their statistics suggest the desirability of increased emphasis on State reporting in extending the coverage of the juvenile-court statistics series.

Table 1.--Juvenile-delinquency cases, 1940, 1941, 1942: Boys' and girls' cases, by race, disposed of by all the courts that reported, according to location of area served by courts

Location of areas served by courts and chief city in certain areas	Population under 21 in 1940	Courts reporting in 1940	Delinquency cases, 1940								Courts reporting in 1941	Delinquency cases, 1941								Courts reporting in 1942	Delinquency cases, 1942							
			Total		White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Race not reported			Total		White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Race not reported			Total		White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Race not reported	
			Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls		Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
NEW ENGLAND DIVISION																												
Massachusetts b/	1,400,519	73	3,960	466	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,960	466	73	4,132	516	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,132	516	73	4,291	617	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,291	617
Rhode Island b/	239,151	12	391	50	353	44	38	6	.....	.....	12	406	75	370	73	36	2	.....	.....	12	462	75	444	67	18	8	.....	.....
Connecticut b/	534,672	134	2,731	361	2,192	258	196	36	343	67	144	2,603	369	2,172	286	171	48	260	35	144	3,414	440	3,156	382	256	78	2	.....
MIDDLE ATLANTIC DIVISION																												
New York b/	4,051,847	54	6,931	1,185	5,846	1,038	1,085	147	.....	.....	55	7,839	1,837	6,237	1,107	1,402	470	.....	.....	57	8,006	1,916	6,575	1,377	1,431	539	.....	.....
New Jersey:																												
Hudson County (Jersey City)	208,772	1	233	37	214	33	19	4	.....	.....	1	231	44	212	42	19	2	.....	.....	1	284	47	248	42	16	5	.....	.....
Pennsylvania:																												
Allegheny County (Pittsburgh)	485,426	1	2,235	477	1,700	327	435	150	.....	.....	1	2,110	553	1,659	405	451	148	.....	.....	1	2,125	584	1,675	409	450	175	.....	.....
Berks County (Reading)	79,315	1	122	13	114	13	8	.....	.....	.....	1	133	4	127	4	6	.....	.....	.....	1	166	17	153	17	13	.....	.....	.....
Montgomery County (Norristown)	90,418	1	136	19	127	19	9	.....	.....	.....	1	168	14	147	10	21	4	.....	.....	1	243	29	207	26	36	3	.....	.....
Philadelphia--city and county	804,921	1	5,562	848	3,077	416	2,505	432	.....	.....	1	5,727	1,114	3,142	576	2,585	538	.....	.....	1	6,006	1,269	3,173	615	2,833	654	.....	.....
EAST NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION																												
Ohio b/	2,025,255	59	12,581	3,043	9,833	2,342	2,625	684	123	17	55	10,832	2,861	8,349	2,238	2,302	705	121	24	38	9,558	3,018	7,540	2,287	1,900	715	118	16
Indiana b/ c/	1,011,339	66	2,116	808	1,867	713	249	95	.....	.....	54	2,805	958	2,502	842	303	116	.....	.....	37	3,941	1,142	3,530	1,021	411	121	.....	.....
Michigan:																												
Kent County (Grand Rapids)	86,335	1	347	59	337	56	10	3	.....	.....	1	326	46	312	45	14	1	.....	.....	1	298	70	283	66	15	4	.....	.....
Oakland County (Pontiac)	97,461	1	264	32	252	29	12	3	.....	.....	1	305	44	288	43	17	1	.....	.....	1	353	96	336	90	17	6	.....	.....
Wayne County (Detroit)	670,392	1	1,783	217	1,287	184	496	33	.....	.....	1	1,933	287	1,390	173	543	114	.....	.....	1	1,888	353	1,300	233	588	120	.....	.....
Wisconsin:																												
Milwaukee County (Milwaukee)	246,554	1	4,249	553	4,027	514	222	39	.....	.....	1	5,335	838	5,049	573	286	65	.....	.....	1	5,240	840	4,980	795	260	45	.....	.....
WEST NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION																												
Minnesota:																												
Hennepin County (Minneapolis) d/	170,428	1	667	193	640	185	27	8	.....	.....	1	709	223	692	211	17	12	.....	.....	1	697	288	678	277	19	11	.....	.....
Ramsey County (St. Paul)	97,919	1	440	70	430	57	10	13	.....	.....	1	379	79	359	69	20	10	.....	.....	1	416	53	390	46	22	7	4	.....
Iowa:																												
Johnson County (Iowa City)	10,674	1	50	8	42	8	.....	.....	8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Polk County (Des Moines)	93,407	1	308	61	280	54	28	7	.....	.....	1	339	73	311	53	28	20	.....	.....	1	403	54	384	41	19	13	.....	.....
Woodbury County (Sioux City)	36,384	1	630	130	510	130	6	6	.....	.....	1	586	79	360	73	26	6	.....	.....	1	658	84	591	81	67	3	.....	.....
Missouri b/	863,072	73	3,738	927	2,821	658	1,101	262	16	7	107	4,826	1,035	3,283	756	1,280	247	63	12	73	4,923	1,410	3,562	1,033	1,296	332	65	45
SOUTH ATLANTIC DIVISION																												
Maryland:																												
Baltimore--city	274,324	1	1,850	280	977	100	873	180	.....	.....	1	2,034	314	1,060	127	974	187	.....	.....	1	1,928	407	974	152	954	255	.....	.....
District of Columbia:																												
Washington--city	178,353	1	2,312	285	891	71	1,421	214	.....	.....	1	2,836	258	1,238	78	1,598	180	.....	.....	1	2,536	324	1,089	73	1,447	251	.....	.....
Virginia:																												
Danville--city	12,038	1	375	61	187	23	188	38	.....	.....	1	525	67	252	32	273	35	.....	.....	1	408	63	288	30	182	33	.....	.....
Norfolk--city	47,942	1	587	97	176	50	211	47	.....	.....	1	493	153	216	78	277	75	.....	.....	1	557	186	291	151	308	37	.....	.....
South Carolina:																												
Greenville County (Greenville)	58,880	1	167	35	82	20	85	15	.....	.....	1	233	37	126	24	107	13	.....	.....	1	235	57	146	28	89	29	.....	.....
Georgia:																												
Fulton County (Atlanta)	134,805	1	890	189	406	74	484	115	.....	.....	1	957	207	470	118	487	89	.....	.....	1	950	242	415	104	535	138	.....	.....
Florida:																												
Dade County (Miami)	75,769	1	545	125	372	86	173	39	.....	.....	1	510	130	355	84	155	46	.....	.....	1	487	148	349	98	138	50	.....	.....
EAST SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION																												
Alabama:																												
Mobile County (Mobile)	94,094	1	120	34	63	17	57	17	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
WEST SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION																												
Arkansas:																												
Pulaski County (Little Rock)	53,683	1	454	190	266	143	188	47	.....	.....	1	582	306	425	229	157	77	.....	.....	1	548	311	380	261	188	50	.....	.....
Louisiana:																												
Caddo Parish (Shreveport)	54,784	1	286	74	158	41	128	33	.....	.....	1	262	96	106	65	154	31	.....	.....	1	221	98	137	64	84	34	.....	.....
Orleans Parish (New Orleans)	163,126	1	838	103	340	31	498	72	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oklahoma:																												
Tulsa--city e/	45,431	1	68	29	52	14	16	15	.....	.....	1	75	72	52	44	23	28	.....	.....	1	69	90	36	58	33	32	.....	.....
Tulsa County--exclusive of city	22,088	1	33	13	29	13	4	.....	.....	.....	1	75	16	68	15	7	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Texas:																												
Bexar County (San Antonio)	125,833	1	1,320	463	1,201	414	119	49	.....	.....	1	1,527	538	1,337	488	190	50	.....	.....	1	1,750	574	1,573	499	152	56	25	19
Dallas County (Dallas)	128,036	1	1,115	239	834	188	281	51	.....	.....	1	1,188	260	752	174	436	86	.....	.....	1	1,153	287	815	212	338	75	.....	.....
Wichita County (Wichita Falls)	26,845	1	443	71	370	62	73	9	.....	.....	1	475	79	425	65	50	14	.....	.....	1	495	114	446	102	49	12	.....	.....
MOUNTAIN DIVISION																												
Montana:																												
Yellowstone County (Billings)	15,108	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	502	157	493	153	9	4	.....	.....
Utah b/ f/	241,671	7	2,120	353	2,114	351	6	2	.....	.....	7	2,792	376	2,784	373	8	3	.....	.....	4	3,802	467	3,587	464	15	3	.....	.....
PACIFIC DIVISION																												
Washington:																												
Pierce County (Tacoma)	94,339	1	114	46	111	44	3	1	.....	.....	1	173	72	169	71	4	1	.....	.....	1	189	88	184	83	5	5	.....	.....
Spokane County (Spokane)	48,584	1	391	90	390	89	1	1	.....	.....	1	470	89	467	88	3	1	.....	.....	1	389	114	384	105	5	9	.....	.....
Oregon:																												
Multnomah County (Portland)	92,352	1	711	119	696	116	15	3	.....	.....	1	866	91	836	89	30	2	.....	.....	1	973	235	948	227	25	8	.....	.....
California:																												
Los Angeles County (Los Angeles)	706,811	1	2,210	430	2,045	398	165	32	.....	.....	1	2,714	458	2,488	419	212	39	14	.....	1	2,806	572	2,545	515	247	56	14	1
San Diego County (San Diego)	80,759	1	1,975	260	1,890	238	79	22	.....	.....	1	1,037	267	977	242	60	25	.....	.....	1	1,218	491	1,153	447	65	14	.....	.....
San Francisco--city and county	141,566	1	447	135	429	124	27	11	.....	.....	1	477	144	.....	.....	.....	.....	477	144	1	432	159	.....	.....	.....	.....	432	159

a/ Includes all Mexicans. b/ The juvenile courts in this State report to the Children's Bureau through a State agency. c/ In March 1941 the age under which juvenile courts in Indiana had jurisdiction over delinquent boys was raised from 16 to 18 years. d/ Excludes traffic violations. e/ In May 1941 the age under which juvenile courts in Oklahoma had jurisdiction over delinquent girls was raised from 16 to 18 years. f/ In March 1942 the former seven juvenile-court districts in Utah were combined into four.

Table 2.--Juvenile-delinquency cases, 1940, 1941, 1942: Boys' and girls' cases disposed of by 83 courts serving areas with populations of 100,000 or more that increased or decreased in population 1940-42, according to location of area served by courts

Areas served by courts, grouped according to type of change in population (increase or decrease) from April 1, 1940 to May 1, 1942, and ranked according to percentage change	Estimated percent change in civilian population April 1, 1940 to May 1, 1942 a/	Delinquency cases								
		Total			Boys			Girls		
		1940	1941	1942	1940	1941	1942	1940	1941	1942
Total--all areas		65,090	70,259	75,324	54,225	57,966	60,333	10,865	12,293	14,991
AREAS THAT INCREASED IN POPULATION 1940-42		48,923	53,529	57,759	40,699	44,105	46,205	8,224	9,424	11,554
California: San Diego County (San Diego)	+34.4	2,235	1,304	1,709	1,975	1,037	1,218	260	267	491
Virginia: Norfolk--city	b/ +32.9	484	646	785	387	493	597	97	153	188
District of Columbia: Washington--city	+24.8	2,597	3,094	2,80	2,312	2,836	2,536	285	258	324
Michigan:										
Oakland County (Pontiac)	b/ +13.7	298	349	449	264	305	353	32	44	96
Wayne County (Detroit)	b/ +13.7	2,000	2,220	2,241	1,763	1,933	1,868	217	287	353
Arkansas: Pulaski County (Little Rock)	+12.2	644	868	859	454	582	548	190	306	311
Texas: Bexar County (San Antonio)	+11.5	1,763	2,069	2,324	1,320	1,527	1,750	443	538	574
New York: Dutchess County (Poughkeepsie)	+11.4	72	65	83	49	55	64	23	10	19
Wisconsin: Milwaukee County (Milwaukee)	+11.3	4,802	5,973	6,086	4,249	5,335	5,246	553	638	840
Ohio: Montgomery County (Dayton)	+9.0	1,403	1,338	1,341	1,272	1,147	1,089	131	191	252
Oklahoma: Tulsa--city c/	+8.4	97	147	159	68	75	89	29	72	90
Texas: Dallas County (Dallas)	+7.8	1,354	1,448	1,440	1,115	1,188	1,153	239	260	287
Indiana: Marion County (Indianapolis) d/	+7.1	424	807	1,358	232	548	1,036	192	259	322
Ohio: Stark County (Canton)	+6.7	313	158	203	240	104	141	71	54	62
Missouri: St. Louis--city	b/ +6.4	3,129	3,180	3,318	2,579	2,590	2,539	550	570	779
Washington: Pierce County (Tacoma)	+6.4	159	245	277	114	173	189	45	72	88
California: San Francisco--city and county	b/ +6.3	582	821	591	441	677	452	135	144	139
Ohio: Hamilton County (Cincinnati)	b/ +6.1	3,203	3,319	3,128	2,543	2,604	2,410	660	715	718
Indiana:										
Vanderburgh County (Evansville) d/	+5.9	239	283	490	180	221	420	59	62	70
Allen County (Fort Wayne) d/	+5.7	102	125	138	92	75	89	40	50	49
Ohio: Summit County (Akron)	+5.2	1,106	1,073	1,311	912	830	1,079	194	243	232
Georgia: Fulton County (Atlanta)	b/ +5.0	1,079	1,164	1,192	890	957	950	189	207	242
Ohio:										
Franklin County (Columbus)	+5.0	1,015	1,088	1,072	712	718	648	303	368	424
Butler County (Hamilton City)	+4.8	757	702	983	527	493	668	230	209	315
California: Los Angeles County (Los Angeles)	b/ +4.5	2,646	3,172	3,378	2,210	2,714	2,806	436	458	572
Maryland: Baltimore--city	b/ +4.5	2,139	2,348	2,378	1,650	2,034	1,928	282	314	407
Ohio: Lorain County (Lorain)	+4.1	244	77	260	211	67	213	33	10	47
Louisiana: Caddo Parish (Shreveport)	+3.8	360	358	319	280	262	221	74	96	98
Utah: District Salt Lake City) d/	+3.3	1,099	1,245	1,338	945	1,105	1,171	154	140	181
Indiana: Lake County (Gary) d/	b/ +2.9	227	312	417	167	218	281	60	94	136
Oregon: Multnomah County (Portland)	b/ +2.6	830	957	1,208	711	800	973	119	91	235
Indiana: St. Joseph County (South Bend) d/	+2.5	683	853	1,012	545	669	825	138	184	187
Pennsylvania:										
Montgomery County (Norristown)	b/ +2.1	155	182	272	136	168	243	19	14	29
Philadelphia--city and county	b/ +2.1	6,430	6,841	7,335	5,582	5,727	6,066	848	1,114	1,269
New York: Chautauqua County (Jamestown)	+1.3	129	217	176	115	198	163	14	19	13
Rhode Island: Sixth district (Providence)	b/ +1.3	265	203	247	149	161	207	16	22	40
Missouri: Jackson County (Kansas City)	b/ +0.8	906	1,200	1,414	742	939	1,067	224	261	347
New York:										
Erie County (Buffalo)	b/ +0.5	782	981	790	666	845	660	96	136	130
Niagara County (Niagara Falls)	b/ +0.5	119	121	190	107	102	156	12	19	34
Ohio: Cuyahoga County (Cleveland)	+0.3	1,674	1,790	1,814	1,281	1,368	1,304	393	422	510
Iowa: Polk County (Des Moines)	+0.7	369	412	457	308	339	403	61	73	54
AREAS THAT DECREASED IN POPULATION 1940-42		16,167	16,730	17,565	13,526	13,861	14,128	2,641	2,869	3,437
New York: Suffolk County (Patchogue)	-0.1	118	116	74	104	109	66	14	7	8
Massachusetts:										
Springfield district (Springfield)	b/ -0.4	143	143	150	125	125	129	18	18	21
Second district of Bristol (Fall River)	b/ -0.7	103	124	145	155	113	121	8	11	24
Third district of Bristol (New Bedford)	b/ -0.7	140	170	213	135	156	200	5	14	13
Michigan: Kent County (Grand Rapids)	-0.7	406	372	368	347	326	298	59	46	70
Massachusetts:										
Boston:										
Boston--central section	b/ -0.8	385	454	526	273	368	395	112	86	131
Brighton	b/ -0.8	46	41	60	38	38	56	8	3	2
Charlestown	b/ -0.8	85	66	82	82	61	77	3	5	5
Dorchester	b/ -0.8	182	111	134	170	93	128	12	18	6
East Boston	b/ -0.8	292	296	366	269	276	349	23	20	17
Roxbury	-0.8	331	358	387	281	357	317	50	41	70
South Boston	b/ -0.8	111	82	105	100	77	98	11	5	7
West Roxbury	b/ -0.8	98	133	114	91	116	107	7	17	7
East Norfolk district (Quincy)	b/ -0.8	151	185	173	133	159	149	18	10	24
First district of eastern Middlesex (Medford)	b/ -0.8	140	193	166	129	177	149	11	16	17
Lawrence district (Lawrence)	b/ -0.8	71	100	118	63	86	107	8	14	11
Lowell district (Lowell)	b/ -0.8	97	58	80	90	51	64	7	7	16
Somerville district (Somerville)	b/ -0.8	102	55	55	98	50	52	4	5	3
Southern Essex district (Lynn)	b/ -0.8	81	112	128	77	101	113	4	11	15
Third district of eastern Middlesex (Cambridge)	b/ -0.8	135	220	219	107	180	187	28	40	32
New York:										
Albany County (Albany)	b/ -0.8	298	295	282	253	248	231	45	47	51
Rensselaer County (Troy)	b/ -0.8	225	175	307	171	132	234	54	43	73
Schenectady County (Schenectady)	b/ -0.8	103	107	106	87	87	94	16	20	12
Florida: Dade County (Miami)	-1.4	670	640	635	545	510	487	125	130	148
Minnesota:										
Hennepin County (Minneapolis) f/	b/ -1.5	880	932	985	667	709	697	193	223	288
Ramsey County (St. Paul)	b/ -1.5	510	458	469	440	379	416	70	79	53
Massachusetts: Central district of Worcester (Worcester)	b/ -2.3	322	324	347	289	293	310	33	31	37
Ohio: Trumbull County (Warren)	b/ -2.3	293	260	367	258	229	294	35	31	73
New York: Onondaga County (Syracuse)	-2.9	298	328	304	267	267	245	29	61	59
Pennsylvania: Allegheny County (Pittsburgh)	b/ -3.2	2,812	2,883	2,709	2,135	2,110	2,125	477	553	584
New Jersey: Hudson County (Jersey City)	b/ -3.5	270	275	311	233	231	264	37	44	47
New York:										
Nassau County (Sempstead)	b/ -3.5	156	197	182	141	176	142	15	21	20
New York--city	b/ -3.5	3,920	4,409	4,880	3,214	3,555	3,799	706	854	1,081
Westchester County (Yonkers)	b/ -3.5	284	293	345	246	242	282	38	51	63
Broome County (Binghamton)	-3.6	94	112	103	51	96	82	13	16	21
Monroe County (Rochester)	-3.8	177	150	153	153	129	130	24	21	23
Pennsylvania: Berks County (Reading)	-3.8	135	137	183	122	133	166	13	4	17
Washington: Spokane County (Spokane)	-4.2	481	559	503	391	470	389	90	89	114
South Carolina: Greenville County (Greenville)	-4.7	202	270	292	167	233	235	35	37	57
New York: Orange County (Newburgh)	-4.8	71	64	83	63	56	74	8	8	9
Iowa: Woodbury County (Sioux City)	-7.1	772	465	342	636	386	258	136	79	84
New York: Chenango County (Utica)	b/ -9.0	169	208	254	130	175	210	39	33	44

a/ U. S. Bureau of the Census: Population: estimates of the civilian population by counties, May 1, 1942. Series P-3, No. 33. Washington, February 25, 1943. 18 pp.
b/ Estimate is based on the population of the whole metropolitan area in which the court is located, not on the population of the area served by the court. Separate estimates for subdivisions are not available.
c/ In May 1941 the age under which juvenile courts in Oklahoma had jurisdiction over delinquent girls was raised from 16 to 18 years.
d/ In March 1941 the age under which juvenile courts in Indiana had jurisdiction over delinquent boys was raised from 16 to 18 years.
e/ Since the juvenile-court reorganization of March 1942 this area has been designated as the second juvenile-court district.
f/ Excludes traffic violations.

Table 3.—Juvenile-delinquency cases, 1940, 1941, 1942: Boys' and girls' cases, by race, disposed of by 26 courts that reported on individual cases, according to location of area served by court

Area served by court, and chief city in certain areas	Age under which court has jurisdiction over delinquent children	Delinquency cases																		
		1940							1941						1942					
		All races			White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		All races			White a/		Negro and other nonwhite	All races			White a/		Negro and other nonwhite	
		Total	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Total	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Total		19,603	16,574	3,029	12,873	2,233	3,901	796	23,484	20,037	3,447	15,832	2,819	4,405	828	25,793	21,455	4,338	17,121	3,342	4,334	996
NEW ENGLAND DIVISION b/																						
MIDDLE ATLANTIC DIVISION		560	491	69	455	65	36	4	594	532	62	486	56	46	6	766	673	93	608	85	65	8
New Jersey:																						
Hudson County (Jersey City)	16	270	233	37	214	33	19	4	275	231	44	212	42	19	2	311	264	47	248	42	16	5
Pennsylvania:																						
Berks County (Reading)	18	135	122	13	114	13	8	.....	137	133	4	127	4	6	.....	183	166	17	153	17	13	.....
Montgomery County (Norristown)	18	155	136	19	127	19	9	.....	182	168	14	147	10	21	4	272	243	29	207	26	36	3
EAST NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION		7,179	6,046	1,133	5,621	1,003	425	130	9,054	7,697	1,357	7,159	1,193	547	164	10,318	8,548	1,770	7,895	1,617	653	153
Indiana: c/																						
Allen County (Fort Wayne)	18	108	62	46	57	37	5	3	125	75	50	63	44	12	6	138	89	49	81	42	8	7
Lake County (Gary)	18	227	167	60	128	46	39	14	312	218	94	189	81	29	13	417	281	136	236	126	45	10
Marion County (Indianapolis)	18	424	232	192	152	157	80	35	807	548	259	426	198	122	61	1,198	1,036	322	850	282	186	40
St. Joseph County (South Bend)	18	283	245	138	528	112	17	26	853	669	184	642	174	27	10	1,012	625	167	805	164	20	23
Vanderburgh County (Evansville)	18	239	180	59	140	52	40	7	263	221	42	181	35	40	7	490	420	70	324	52	96	18
Michigan:																						
Kent County (Grand Rapids)	17	406	347	59	337	56	10	3	372	326	46	312	45	14	1	388	298	70	283	66	15	4
Oakland County (Pontiac)	17	296	264	32	252	29	12	3	349	305	44	288	43	17	1	449	353	96	336	90	17	6
Wisconsin:																						
Milwaukee County (Milwaukee)	18	4,802	4,249	553	4,027	514	222	39	5,973	5,335	638	5,049	573	286	65	8,086	5,246	840	4,980	795	266	45
WEST NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION		1,229	975	254	920	239	55	15	1,344	1,048	296	1,003	264	45	32	1,442	1,100	342	1,062	318	38	24
Minnesota:																						
Hennepin County (Minneapolis) d/	18	860	667	193	640	185	27	8	932	709	223	692	211	17	12	985	697	288	678	277	19	11
Iowa:																						
Polk County (Des Moines)	18	369	308	61	280	54	28	7	412	339	73	311	53	28	20	457	403	54	384	41	19	13
SOUTH ATLANTIC DIVISION		7,182	6,151	1,011	2,904	401	3,247	610	8,162	7,063	1,099	3,465	509	3,598	590	8,099	6,733	1,366	3,264	606	3,469	760
Maryland:																						
Baltimore--city	16	2,130	1,850	280	977	100	873	180	2,348	2,034	314	1,060	127	974	187	2,335	1,928	407	974	152	954	255
District of Columbia:																						
Washington--city	18	2,597	2,312	285	891	71	1,421	214	3,094	2,836	258	1,238	78	1,598	180	2,680	2,336	324	1,089	73	1,447	251
Virginia:																						
Norfolk--city	18	484	387	97	176	50	211	47	646	493	153	216	78	277	75	785	597	188	291	151	306	37
South Carolina:																						
Greenville County (Greenville)	16	202	167	35	82	20	85	15	270	233	37	126	24	107	13	292	235	57	146	28	89	29
Georgia:																						
Fulton County (Atlanta)	16	1,079	890	189	406	74	484	115	1,164	957	207	470	118	487	89	1,192	950	242	415	104	535	138
Florida:																						
Dade County (Miami)	17	670	545	125	372	86	173	39	640	510	130	355	84	155	46	835	687	148	349	98	138	50
EAST SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION b/																						
WEST SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION		360	286	74	158	41	128	33	358	262	96	108	65	154	31	319	221	98	137	64	84	34
Louisiana:																						
Caddo Parish (Shreveport)	17	360	286	74	158	41	128	33	358	262	96	108	65	154	31	319	221	98	137	64	84	34
MOUNTAIN DIVISION		2,473	2,120	353	2,114	351	6	2	3,168	2,792	376	2,784	373	8	3	4,069	3,602	467	3,587	464	15	3
Utah: e/																						
First district (Ogden)	18	556	478	80	475	80	3	.....	624	552	72	549	72	3	.....	901	807	94	802	94	5	.....
Second district (Salt Lake City)	18	1,099	945	154	942	154	3	.....	1,245	1,105	140	1,100	139	5	1	1,734	1,577	161	1,570	156	7	3
Third district (Provo)	18	542	461	81	461	73	.....	2	1,071	920	151	920	149	.....	2	1,131	958	173	955	173	3	.....
Fourth district (Cedar City)	18	274	236	38	236	38	.....	.....	228	215	13	215	13	.....	.....	299	260	39	260	39	.....	.....
PACIFIC DIVISION		640	505	135	501	133	4	2	804	643	161	636	159	7	2	780	578	202	568	188	10	14
Washington:																						
Pierce County (Tacoma)	18	159	114	45	111	44	3	1	245	173	72	169	71	4	1	277	189	88	184	83	5	5
Spokane County (Spokane)	18	481	391	90	390	89	1	1	559	470	89	467	88	3	1	503	389	114	384	105	5	9

a/ Includes all Mexicans.
b/ No courts in this geographic division reported on individual cases for 1940, 1941, and 1942.
c/ In March 1941 the age under which juvenile courts in Indiana had jurisdiction over delinquent boys was raised from 16 to 18 years.
d/ Excludes traffic violations.
e/ In March 1942 the former seven juvenile-court districts in Utah were combined into four. The cases disposed of in 1940 and 1941 have been redistributed according to the 1942 designation.

Table 4.--Juvenile-delinquency cases, 1940, 1941, 1942: Reason for reference to court, disposition of case, age of child when referred, previous court experience, and source of reference; boys' and girls' cases, by race, disposed of by 2b courts that reported on individual cases

Reason for reference to court, disposition of case, age of child when referred, previous court experience, and source of reference	Delinquency cases															
	1940						1941						1942			
	Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite	
			Number	Percent	Number	Percent			Number	Percent	Number	Percent			Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Boys' cases																		
Reason for reference to court	10,574	100	12,873	100	3,901	100	20,037	100	15,832	100	4,405	100	21,455	100	17,121	100	4,334	100
Stealing	8,217	50	5,880	46	2,337	60	9,481	47	6,758	43	2,723	62	9,215	43	6,890	39	2,325	58
Act of carelessness or mischief	3,325	20	2,488	20	837	21	3,683	19	3,070	20	813	19	4,143	19	3,244	19	899	21
Sex offense	399	2	343	3	56	1	376	2	315	2	61	1	439	2	365	2	74	2
Ungovernable behavior or running away	1,436	9	1,139	9	297	8	1,700	9	1,376	9	324	7	2,208	10	1,841	11	367	8
Other reasons	3,197	19	2,823	22	374	10	4,597	23	4,113	26	484	11	5,450	26	4,981	29	469	11
Disposition of case	10,574	100	12,873	100	3,901	100	20,037	100	15,832	100	4,405	100	21,455	100	17,121	100	4,334	100
Probation officer to supervise	3,433	21	2,712	22	721	18	3,975	20	3,090	20	885	20	4,326	20	3,418	20	908	21
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	9,741	59	7,653	60	2,088	54	11,763	59	9,455	60	2,308	53	12,847	59	10,402	61	2,445	58
Committed or referred to an institution	1,553	9	1,001	8	552	14	1,614	8	1,033	7	581	13	1,839	8	1,041	6	598	14
Other disposition	1,847	11	1,707	10	540	14	2,685	13	2,054	13	631	14	2,843	13	2,260	13	583	13
Age when referred to court	10,574	100	12,873	100	3,901	100	20,037	100	15,832	100	4,405	100	21,455	100	17,121	100	4,334	100
Under 10 years	676	4	516	4	160	4	892	4	683	4	209	5	1,074	5	819	5	255	6
10 years, under 12	1,591	10	1,076	8	515	13	1,934	10	1,557	9	377	13	1,873	9	1,381	8	492	14
12 years, under 14	3,285	20	2,258	18	1,027	27	3,813	19	2,671	17	1,142	26	3,709	18	2,748	16	1,021	23
14 years, under 16	4,056	38	4,052	37	1,404	36	6,736	34	5,215	33	1,521	35	7,017	33	5,442	32	1,475	34
16 years and over	4,956	30	4,165	33	791	20	6,635	33	5,689	37	946	21	7,603	35	6,617	39	986	23
Age not reported	10	b/	6	b/	4	b/	20	b/	17	b/	3	b/	19	c/	14	b/	5	b/
Previous court experience	10,574	100	12,873	100	3,901	100	20,037	100	15,832	100	4,405	100	21,455	100	17,121	100	4,334	100
Previous court experience	6,732	41	4,785	38	1,947	50	7,874	39	5,784	37	2,090	48	8,145	38	6,185	36	1,960	45
No previous court experience	9,820	59	7,873	62	1,947	50	12,135	61	9,826	63	2,309	52	13,310	62	10,936	64	2,374	55
Previous court experience not reported	22	b/	15	b/	7	b/	28	b/	22	b/	6	b/						
Source of reference to court	10,574	100	12,873	100	3,901	100	20,037	100	15,832	100	4,405	100	21,455	100	17,121	100	4,334	100
Police	13,577	82	10,286	81	3,291	84	16,793	84	13,026	83	3,767	86	17,850	83	14,199	83	3,651	84
Parents or relatives	528	3	390	3	138	4	523	2	398	2	125	3	659	3	477	3	182	4
Other individuals	1,115	7	852	7	263	7	1,194	6	915	6	279	6	1,337	6	1,098	6	241	6
School department	731	4	646	5	85	2	931	5	841	5	90	2	1,060	5	818	5	129	3
All other	623	4	489	4	134	3	636	3	494	3	142	3	549	3	414	2	135	3
Girls' cases																		
Reason for reference to court	3,029	100	2,233	100	796	100	3,447	100	2,619	100	828	100	4,338	100	3,342	100	996	100
Stealing	518	17	340	15	178	22	526	15	344	13	182	22	703	16	450	13	253	25
Act of carelessness or mischief	295	10	147	7	148	19	291	8	187	7	104	13	411	10	272	8	139	14
Sex offense	488	16	406	18	82	10	510	15	427	16	83	10	519	12	431	13	88	9
Ungovernable behavior or running away	1,264	42	974	44	290	36	1,549	45	1,189	46	360	44	1,928	44	1,559	47	369	37
Other reasons	464	15	366	16	98	13	611	18	492	19	119	14	777	18	630	19	147	15
Disposition of case	3,029	100	2,233	100	796	100	3,447	100	2,619	100	828	100	4,338	100	3,342	100	996	100
Probation officer to supervise	851	28	684	31	167	21	881	26	714	27	167	20	1,171	27	986	29	185	19
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	1,305	43	903	40	402	51	1,477	43	1,079	41	398	48	1,823	42	1,295	39	528	53
Committed or referred to an institution	433	14	303	14	130	16	500	14	355	14	145	18	591	14	440	13	151	15
Other disposition	440	15	343	15	97	12	589	17	471	18	118	14	753	17	621	19	132	13
Age when referred to court	3,029	100	2,233	100	796	100	3,447	100	2,619	100	828	100	4,338	100	3,342	100	996	100
Under 10 years	57	2	47	2	10	1	51	2	42	2	9	1	89	2	73	2	16	2
10 years, under 12	125	4	79	4	46	6	134	5	91	3	43	6	193	5	129	4	64	6
12 years, under 14	522	17	355	16	167	21	597	17	416	16	181	22	744	17	485	14	259	26
14 years, under 16	1,272	42	922	41	350	44	1,393	40	1,058	40	335	40	1,822	42	1,393	42	429	43
16 years and over	1,053	35	830	37	223	28	1,249	36	1,009	39	240	29	1,487	34	1,259	38	228	23
Age not reported							3	b/	3	b/			3	b/	3	b/		
Previous court experience	3,029	100	2,233	100	796	100	3,447	100	2,619	100	828	100	4,338	100	3,342	100	996	100
Previous court experience	728	24	527	24	201	25	855	25	638	24	217	26	1,130	26	875	26	255	26
No previous court experience	2,293	76	1,698	76	595	75	2,580	75	1,970	75	610	74	3,208	74	2,467	74	741	74
Previous court experience not reported	8	b/	8	b/			12	b/	11	1	1	b/						
Source of reference to court	3,029	100	2,233	100	796	100	3,447	100	2,619	100	828	100	4,338	100	3,342	100	996	100
Police	1,504	50	1,118	50	386	48	1,939	53	1,404	54	535	53	2,400	57	1,896	55	504	50
Parents or relatives	550	18	404	18	146	18	611	18	421	16	190	23	705	16	516	15	189	19
Other individuals	295	10	195	9	100	13	271	8	195	7	76	9	289	7	221	7	68	7
School department	334	11	298	13	36	4	411	12	369	14	42	5	465	11	427	13	58	6
All other	286	9	218	10	68	9	315	9	230	9	85	10	339	9	322	10	77	8

a/ Includes all Mexicans. b/ Less than 1 percent.

Table 5.—Juvenile-delinquency cases, 1940, 1941, 1942: Reason for reference to court and disposition of cases; boys' and girls' cases, by race, disposed of by 26 courts that reported on individual cases

Reason for reference to court and disposition of case	Delinquency cases															
	1940						1941						1942			
	Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite	
			Number	Percent	Number	Percent			Number	Percent	Number	Percent			Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total cases	19,803	.....	14,906	.....	4,897	.....	23,484	.....	18,251	.....	5,233	.....	25,793	.....	20,463	.....	5,330	.....
Boys' cases	16,574	.....	12,673	.....	3,901	.....	20,037	.....	15,632	.....	4,405	.....	21,455	.....	17,121	.....	4,334	.....
Stealing	8,217	100	5,880	100	2,337	100	9,481	100	6,756	100	2,723	100	9,215	100	6,690	100	2,525	100
Probation officer to supervise	2,380	29	1,846	31	534	23	2,732	29	2,088	31	644	24	2,739	30	2,118	32	621	25
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	4,162	50	3,031	52	1,131	48	4,796	51	3,448	51	1,348	49	4,490	51	3,493	52	1,197	47
Committed or referred to an institution	1,040	13	632	11	408	18	1,085	11	681	10	404	15	1,003	11	618	9	385	15
Other disposition	635	8	371	6	264	11	868	9	541	8	327	12	763	8	461	7	322	13
Act of carelessness or mischief	3,325	100	2,488	100	837	100	3,681	100	3,070	100	611	100	4,147	100	3,244	100	898	100
Probation officer to supervise	272	8	215	9	57	7	359	9	247	8	112	14	371	9	286	9	85	10
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	2,723	82	2,097	84	626	75	3,203	82	2,619	85	584	72	3,430	83	2,777	86	653	73
Committed or referred to an institution	70	2	29	1	41	5	64	2	36	1	28	3	83	2	34	1	49	5
Other disposition	260	8	147	6	113	13	257	7	168	6	89	11	253	6	147	4	106	12
Sex offense	389	100	343	100	56	b/	376	100	315	100	61	b/	439	100	365	100	74	b/
Probation officer to supervise	151	38	133	39	18	b/	103	28	91	29	14	b/	138	31	121	33	17	b/
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	180	45	161	47	19	b/	210	56	185	59	25	b/	240	55	199	55	41	b/
Committed or referred to an institution	48	12	36	10	12	b/	34	9	19	6	15	b/	39	9	29	8	10	b/
Other disposition	20	5	13	4	7	b/	27	7	20	6	7	b/	22	5	16	4	6	b/
Ungovernable behavior or running away	1,439	100	1,119	100	297	100	1,700	100	1,376	100	324	100	2,008	100	1,641	100	367	100
Probation officer to supervise	240	17	184	16	56	19	248	15	193	14	55	17	307	15	294	18	73	20
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	418	29	323	28	95	32	486	29	385	28	101	31	541	25	438	24	103	28
Committed or referred to an institution	307	21	236	21	71	24	310	18	210	15	100	31	380	17	270	15	110	32
Other disposition	471	33	356	35	75	25	655	38	585	43	70	22	914	41	839	45	75	20
Other reasons	3,197	100	2,822	100	174	100	4,597	100	4,111	100	484	100	5,450	100	4,981	100	469	100
Probation officer to supervise	390	12	334	12	56	15	590	11	482	11	82	13	711	13	599	12	112	24
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	2,258	71	2,041	72	217	58	3,088	67	2,818	69	270	52	3,740	69	3,495	70	245	52
Committed or referred to an institution	88	3	68	2	20	5	121	3	87	2	34	7	128	2	90	2	38	8
Other disposition	461	14	380	14	81	22	878	19	740	18	138	28	871	16	797	16	74	16
Girls' cases	3,029	.....	2,233	.....	796	.....	3,447	.....	2,619	.....	828	.....	4,338	.....	3,342	.....	996	.....
Stealing	516	100	346	100	172	100	820	100	644	100	182	100	703	100	450	100	253	100
Probation officer to supervise	174	34	124	36	50	29	196	30	127	37	69	38	198	28	156	34	42	17
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	241	46	157	45	84	49	287	54	168	49	119	65	385	55	220	49	165	65
Committed or referred to an institution	55	11	34	10	21	12	43	8	22	6	21	12	51	7	30	7	21	8
Other disposition	48	9	31	9	17	10	40	8	27	8	13	7	69	10	44	10	25	10
Act of carelessness or mischief	295	100	147	100	148	100	251	100	167	100	84	b/	411	100	272	100	139	100
Probation officer to supervise	26	9	20	14	6	4	27	11	15	9	12	b/	44	11	37	14	7	5
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	234	79	112	76	122	82	198	79	143	86	55	b/	322	78	215	79	107	77
Committed or referred to an institution	7	2	4	3	3	2	6	2	1	c/	5	b/	12	3	7	2	5	4
Other disposition	28	10	11	7	17	12	20	8	8	5	12	b/	33	8	13	5	20	14
Sex offense	488	100	406	100	82	b/	510	100	427	100	83	b/	519	100	431	100	88	b/
Probation officer to supervise	157	32	131	32	26	b/	164	32	142	33	22	b/	194	37	167	39	27	b/
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	155	32	122	30	33	b/	185	36	154	36	31	b/	166	32	131	30	35	b/
Committed or referred to an institution	113	23	94	23	19	b/	109	22	91	21	18	b/	112	22	90	21	22	b/
Other disposition	63	13	59	15	4	b/	52	10	40	10	12	b/	47	9	43	10	4	b/
Ungovernable behavior or running away	1,264	100	974	100	290	100	1,549	100	1,189	100	360	100	1,928	100	1,559	100	369	100
Probation officer to supervise	364	29	301	31	63	22	383	23	278	23	85	24	511	27	428	27	83	22
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	405	32	298	30	107	37	489	32	362	30	127	35	541	28	405	26	136	37
Committed or referred to an institution	231	18	153	16	78	27	298	19	209	18	89	25	354	18	263	17	91	25
Other disposition	264	21	222	23	42	14	339	26	340	29	59	16	522	27	463	30	59	16
Other reasons	404	100	360	100	104	100	611	100	495	100	119	100	777	100	630	100	147	100
Probation officer to supervise	130	28	108	30	22	21	171	28	152	31	19	16	224	29	198	31	26	18
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	270	58	214	59	56	54	318	52	252	51	66	55	409	53	324	52	85	58
Committed or referred to an institution	27	6	18	5	9	9	44	7	32	7	12	10	62	8	50	8	12	8
Other disposition	37	8	20	6	17	16	78	13	59	11	22	19	82	10	58	9	24	16

a/ Includes all Mexicans.
b/ Percent not computed when base is less than 100.
c/ Less than 1 percent.

Table 6.—Juvenile-delinquency cases, 1940, 1941, 1942 Reason for reference to court and source of reference: boys' and girls' cases, by race, disposed of by 2b courts that reported on individual cases

Reason for reference to court and source of reference	Delinquency cases																	
	1940						1941						1942					
	Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite	
			Number	Percent	Number	Percent			Number	Percent	Number	Percent			Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total cases	19,803		14,906		4,897		23,484		18,251		5,233		25,793		20,403		5,390	
Boys' cases	16,574		12,673		3,901		20,037		15,832		4,405		21,455		17,121		4,334	
Stealing	8,217	100	5,680	100	2,537	100	9,481	100	6,758	100	2,723	100	9,215	100	6,690	100	2,525	100
Police	7,449	90	5,286	90	2,163	93	8,609	91	6,143	91	2,526	93	8,536	93	6,144	92	2,390	95
Parents or relatives	60	1	48	1	12	1	46	b/	30	b/	16	1	54	1	45	1	9	b/
Other individuals	393	5	290	5	103	4	435	5	330	5	105	4	404	4	337	5	67	3
School department	73	1	71	1	2	b/	67	1	57	1	10	b/	49	b/	44	b/	5	b/
All other	242	3	185	3	57	2	284	3	198	3	86	2	172	2	118	2	54	2
Act of carelessness or mischief	3,325	100	2,488	100	837	100	3,583	100	3,070	100	813	100	4,143	100	3,244	100	899	100
Police	2,735	82	2,206	80	729	87	3,375	87	2,821	85	754	93	3,426	83	2,824	81	802	89
Parents or relatives	14	1	9	b/	5	b/	9	b/	4	b/	4	b/	13	b/	8	b/	5	1
Other individuals	442	13	308	15	74	9	394	10	355	12	39	5	602	15	523	16	79	8
School department	56	2	41	2	15	2	28	1	24	1	4	b/	60	1	55	2	5	1
All other	78	2	64	3	14	2	77	2	66	2	12	2	42	1	34	1	8	1
Sex offense	399	100	343	100	56	c/	376	100	315	100	61	c/	439	100	365	100	74	c/
Police	291	73	249	73	42	c/	267	71	220	72	41	c/	338	77	287	79	51	c/
Parents or relatives	12	3	11	3	1	c/	5	1	2	b/	3	c/	5	1	4	1	2	c/
Other individuals	52	13	42	12	10	c/	58	15	44	14	14	c/	40	10	35	9	11	c/
School department	10	4	10	3	.....	.....	4	1	3	1	1	c/	11	3	10	3	1	c/
All other	28	7	25	7	3	c/	42	11	40	13	2	c/	38	9	29	8	9	c/
Ungovernable behavior or running away	1,433	100	1,133	100	297	100	1,700	100	1,376	100	324	100	2,208	100	1,841	100	367	100
Police	959	46	552	48	107	36	912	54	794	58	118	36	1,259	57	1,130	61	129	35
Parents or relatives	404	28	295	26	109	36	429	25	292	21	137	42	548	25	391	21	157	43
Other individuals	99	7	82	7	17	6	99	6	86	6	13	4	93	4	75	4	18	5
School department	95	4	91	5	11	4	99	6	84	6	15	5	96	4	82	5	14	4
All other	209	15	150	14	53	18	161	9	120	9	41	13	212	10	163	9	49	13
Other reasons	3,197	100	2,823	100	374	100	4,597	100	4,113	100	484	100	5,450	100	4,981	100	469	100
Police	2,443	77	2,193	78	250	67	3,570	78	3,242	79	328	68	4,291	79	4,012	81	279	60
Parents or relatives	38	1	27	1	11	3	34	1	27	1	7	2	16	1	29	1	9	2
Other individuals	129	4	80	3	49	13	108	3	100	2	68	14	192	3	126	2	66	14
School department	521	16	464	16	57	15	733	16	673	16	60	12	844	15	744	15	100	21
All other	66	2	59	2	7	2	92	2	71	2	21	4	85	2	70	1	15	3
Girls' cases	3,229		2,233		796		3,447		2,819		828		4,338		3,342		996	
Stealing	518	100	348	100	172	100	526	100	344	100	182	100	703	100	456	100	253	100
Police	420	81	278	80	142	82	461	88	300	87	161	89	614	87	376	84	238	94
Parents or relatives	7	1	3	1	4	2	8	1	6	2	2	1	18	3	14	3	4	2
Other individuals	55	11	38	11	17	10	41	8	28	8	13	7	38	5	34	7	4	2
School department	10	2	9	3	1	1	1	b/	1	b/	.....	.....	14	2	14	3	.....	.....
All other	26	5	18	5	8	5	15	3	9	3	6	3	19	3	12	3	7	2
Act of carelessness or mischief	295	100	147	100	148	100	251	100	167	100	84	c/	411	100	272	100	139	100
Police	188	64	75	51	113	76	177	71	113	68	64	c/	300	73	190	70	110	79
Parents or relatives	6	2	5	3	1	1	6	2	3	2	3	c/	11	3	8	3	3	2
Other individuals	77	26	47	32	30	20	57	23	43	26	14	c/	70	17	49	18	21	15
School department	8	3	8	6	.....	.....	6	2	6	3	.....	.....	13	3	10	4	3	2
All other	16	5	12	8	4	3	5	2	2	1	3	c/	17	4	15	6	2	2
Sex offense	488	100	406	100	82	c/	510	100	427	100	83	c/	519	100	431	100	88	c/
Police	292	60	247	61	45	c/	322	63	268	63	54	c/	339	65	273	63	--	c/
Parents or relatives	71	14	57	14	14	c/	58	11	52	12	6	c/	60	12	46	11	14	c/
Other individuals	28	6	23	6	5	c/	34	7	31	7	3	c/	29	6	28	7	1	c/
School department	32	7	23	6	9	c/	27	5	23	5	4	c/	23	4	23	5	.....	.....
All other	65	13	56	13	9	c/	69	14	53	13	16	c/	68	13	61	14	7	c/
Ungovernable behavior or running away	1,264	100	974	100	290	100	1,549	100	1,189	100	360	100	1,928	100	1,559	100	369	100
Police	502	40	390	40	112	39	679	44	562	47	117	32	910	47	777	50	133	36
Parents or relatives	453	36	332	34	121	42	521	34	349	30	172	48	591	31	430	28	161	44
Other individuals	94	7	79	8	15	5	102	6	84	7	18	5	94	5	80	5	14	4
School department	59	5	53	6	6	2	86	6	51	4	15	4	88	5	82	5	6	1
All other	156	12	120	12	36	12	161	12	143	12	38	11	245	14	210	13	55	15
Other reasons	464	100	360	100	104	100	611	100	492	100	119	100	777	100	630	100	147	100
Police	262	35	228	36	34	33	200	33	161	33	39	33	297	38	240	38	57	39
Parents or relatives	13	3	7	2	6	6	18	3	11	2	7	6	25	3	18	3	7	5
Other individuals	41	9	8	2	33	32	37	6	9	2	28	24	58	7	30	5	28	19
School department	225	48	205	57	20	19	311	51	288	58	23	19	367	48	318	50	49	33
All other	23	5	12	3	11	10	45	7	23	5	22	18	30	4	24	4	6	4

a/ Includes all Mexicans.
b/ Less than 1 percent.
c/ Percent not computed when base is less than 100.

Table 7.--Juvenile-delinquency cases, 1940, 1941, 1942: Disposition of case and source of reference to court, boys' and girls' cases, by race, disposed of by 26 courts that reported on individual cases

Disposition of case and source of reference to court	Delinquency cases															
	1940						1941						1942			
	Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite	
			Number	Percent	Number	Percent			Number	Percent	Number	Percent			Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total cases	19,803	.....	14,906	.....	4,697	.....	23,484	.....	18,251	.....	5,233	.....	25,793	.....	20,463	.....	5,330	.....
Boys' cases	16,574	.....	12,673	.....	3,901	.....	20,037	.....	15,632	.....	4,405	.....	21,455	.....	17,121	.....	4,334	.....
Probation officer to supervise	3,433	100	2,712	100	721	100	3,975	100	3,090	100	885	100	4,326	100	3,418	100	908	100
Police	2,669	78	2,075	77	594	82	3,179	80	2,435	79	744	84	3,344	77	2,613	76	731	80
Parents or relatives	121	3	92	3	29	4	196	5	74	2	32	4	175	4	122	4	53	6
Other individuals	195	6	147	5	48	7	196	5	139	4	57	6	232	5	178	5	54	6
School department	276	8	249	9	29	4	322	8	301	10	21	2	411	10	366	11	45	5
All other	170	5	149	6	21	3	172	4	141	5	31	4	164	4	139	4	25	3
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	9,741	100	7,653	100	2,088	100	11,763	100	9,455	100	2,308	100	12,047	100	10,402	100	2,245	100
Police	8,286	85	6,419	84	1,867	89	10,123	86	8,045	85	2,078	90	10,785	85	8,795	85	1,990	89
Parents or relatives	211	2	161	2	50	3	217	2	159	2	58	2	242	2	180	2	62	3
Other individuals	727	7	620	8	107	5	745	6	653	7	92	4	941	8	836	8	105	5
School department	347	4	311	4	36	2	469	4	431	4	38	2	521	4	464	4	57	2
All other	164	2	142	2	22	1	209	2	167	2	42	2	158	1	127	1	31	1
Committed or referred to an institution	1,553	100	1,001	100	552	100	1,614	100	1,033	100	581	100	1,639	100	1,041	100	598	100
Police	1,129	73	710	71	419	76	1,152	71	733	71	419	72	1,179	72	725	69	454	76
Parents or relatives	126	8	98	10	28	5	152	10	92	9	60	10	182	11	122	12	60	10
Other individuals	65	4	30	3	35	6	76	5	41	4	35	6	51	3	28	3	23	4
School department	82	5	71	7	11	2	99	6	83	8	16	3	88	5	74	7	14	2
All other	151	10	92	9	59	11	135	8	84	8	51	9	139	9	92	9	47	8
All other dispositions	1,847	100	1,307	100	540	100	2,685	100	2,094	100	631	100	2,843	100	2,260	100	583	100
Police	1,493	81	1,082	83	411	76	2,319	87	1,813	86	526	83	2,542	90	2,066	92	476	82
Parents or relatives	94	3	39	3	25	4	48	2	31	2	17	3	60	2	53	2	7	1
Other individuals	128	7	65	5	63	12	137	5	82	4	55	9	113	4	54	2	59	10
School department	24	1	15	1	9	2	41	2	26	1	15	2	40	1	31	1	9	2
All other	136	8	106	8	32	6	120	4	102	5	18	3	88	3	56	3	32	5
Girls' cases	3,029	.....	2,233	.....	796	.....	3,447	.....	2,619	.....	828	.....	4,338	.....	3,342	.....	996	.....
Probation officer to supervise	851	100	684	100	167	100	881	100	714	100	167	100	1,171	100	986	100	185	100
Police	460	54	381	56	79	47	474	54	350	55	84	50	647	55	542	55	105	57
Parents or relatives	164	19	122	18	42	25	155	18	110	15	45	27	204	17	154	16	50	27
Other individuals	33	4	23	3	10	6	21	2	14	2	7	4	55	5	48	5	8	4
School department	124	15	113	16	11	7	153	17	141	20	12	7	165	14	150	15	15	8
All other	70	8	45	7	25	15	78	9	59	8	19	12	99	9	92	9	7	4
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	1,305	100	903	100	402	100	1,477	100	1,079	100	398	100	1,823	100	1,535	100	288	100
Police	701	54	428	48	273	68	789	53	594	55	195	49	1,025	56	861	56	164	57
Parents or relatives	207	16	157	17	50	12	240	16	165	15	75	19	275	15	193	13	82	29
Other individuals	174	13	124	14	50	12	174	12	134	13	40	10	184	10	144	11	40	8
School department	152	12	138	15	14	4	188	13	172	16	16	4	242	13	218	17	24	5
All other	71	5	56	6	15	4	86	6	54	5	32	8	97	6	81	6	16	3
Committed or referred to an institution	431	100	303	100	130	100	500	100	355	100	145	100	591	100	440	100	151	100
Police	182	42	118	39	64	49	209	42	150	42	59	41	264	45	197	45	67	45
Parents or relatives	105	24	79	26	26	20	132	26	86	24	46	32	134	23	102	23	32	21
Other individuals	31	7	20	7	11	9	30	6	22	6	8	5	20	3	15	3	5	3
School department	35	8	26	8	9	7	44	9	35	10	9	6	32	5	27	6	5	3
All other	80	19	60	20	20	15	85	17	62	18	23	16	141	24	99	23	42	28
All other dispositions	440	100	343	100	97	b/	589	100	471	100	118	100	753	100	621	100	132	100
Police	221	50	191	56	30	b/	367	62	310	66	57	48	524	70	454	73	68	52
Parents or relatives	74	17	60	17	14	b/	84	14	60	13	24	21	92	12	67	11	25	19
Other individuals	57	13	28	8	29	b/	46	8	25	5	21	18	29	4	14	2	15	11
School department	23	5	21	6	2	b/	26	5	21	4	5	4	40	6	34	6	12	9
All other	65	15	43	17	22	b/	66	11	55	12	11	9	62	8	52	8	12	9

a/ Includes all Mexicans.
b/ Percent not computed when base is less than 100.

Table 8.—Juvenile-delinquency cases, 1942: Reason for reference to court and source of reference; boys' and girls' cases, by race, disposed of by 2b courts that reported on individual cases, in selected geographic divisions

Reason for reference to court and source of reference	Delinquency cases															
	East North Central Division						South Atlantic Division						All other geographic divisions					
	Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite	
			Number	Percent	Number	Percent			Number	Percent	Number	Percent			Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total cases	10,317		9,511		806		5,099		1,870		4,229		7,377		7,082		295	
Boys' cases	8,547		7,894		653		5,731		1,284		3,469		5,175		5,963		212	
Stealing	3,108	100	2,772	100	336	100	1,880	100	1,756	100	2,964	100	2,447	100	2,322	100	125	100
Police	2,912	94	2,587	93	325	97	1,809	96	1,723	98	1,986	67	2,115	86	2,036	87	79	63
Parents or relatives	22	1	19	1	3	1	16	b/	10	1	6	b/	16	1	16	1		
Other individuals	112	4	110	4	2	1	107	3	40	3	61	3	185	8	181	8	4	3
School department	13	b/	12	b/	1	b/	10	b/	9	b/	4	b/	26	1	26	1		
All other	49	1	44	2	5	1	18	1	11	1	7	b/	105	4	63	3	42	34
Act of carelessness or mischief	1,862	100	1,577	100	285	100	1,496	100	739	100	757	100	965	100	928	100	37	c/
Police	1,775	88	1,577	87	98	33	1,379	87	631	86	678	90	642	66	616	66	26	c/
Parents or relatives	5	b/	5	b/			7	1	2	b/	4	1	b/ 1	b/	1	b/		
Other individuals	187	11	180	11	7	7	168	11	98	13	70	9	247	26	245	26	2	c/
School department	7	b/	7	1			7	1	5	1	2	b/	46	5	43	5	3	c/
All other	8	1	8	1			5	b/	3	b/	2	b/	29	3	23	3	6	c/
Sex offense	289	100	244	100	25	c/	83	c/	38	c/	45	c/	87	c/	83	c/	4	c/
Police	209	78	196	80	13	c/	65	c/	29	c/	36	c/	64	c/	62	c/	2	c/
Parents or relatives	4	1	2	1	2	c/							2	c/	2	c/		
Other individuals	19	7	17	7	2	c/	17	c/	9	c/	8	c/	10	c/	9	c/	1	c/
School department	6	2	5	2	1	c/							5	c/	5	c/		
All other	31	12	24	10	7	c/	1	c/			1	c/	6	c/	5	c/	1	c/
Ungovernable behavior or running away	994	100	873	100	81	c/	566	100	423	100	295	100	580	100	545	100	21	c/
Police	716	75	676	76	38	c/	288	51	181	38	88	33	294	52	291	54	3	c/
Parents or relatives	106	11	86	10	20	c/	314	46	185	44	129	49	128	23	120	22	8	c/
Other individuals	44	5	39	4	5	c/	19	3	7	1	12	4	30	5	29	5	1	c/
School department	37	4	30	3	7	c/	25	3	20	5	5	2	34	6	32	6	2	c/
All other	51	5	40	5	11	c/	81	12	50	12	31	12	80	14	73	13	7	c/
Other reasons	2,514	100	2,428	100	106	100	806	100	488	100	318	100	2,110	100	2,085	100	25	c/
Police	2,363	81	2,206	82	57	54	556	69	350	75	208	62	1,670	79	1,656	80	14	c/
Parents or relatives	22	1	17	1	5	4	7	1	4	1	3	1	9	1	8	b/	1	c/
Other individuals	31	1	29	1	2	2	95	12	33	7	62	18	66	3	64	3	2	c/
School department	397	16	357	15	40	38	128	16	74	16	54	16	319	15	313	15	6	c/
All other	21	1	19	1	2	2	18	2	7	1	11	3	46	2	44	2	2	c/
Girls' cases	1,770		1,617		143		1,368		606		760		1,202		1,119		83	
Stealing	232	100	202	100	30	c/	280	100	79	c/	207	100	185	100	169	100	16	c/
Police	186	80	159	79	27	c/	278	99	74	c/	200	97	164	89	143	85	11	c/
Parents or relatives	10	4	7	3	3	c/	1	b/			1	b/	7	4	7	4		
Other individuals	20	9	20	10			6	2	2	c/	4	2	12	6	12	7		
School department	7	3	7	3			2	1	2	c/			5	3	5	3		
All other	9	4	9	5			3	1	1	c/	2	1	7	4	2	1	5	c/
Act of carelessness or mischief	169	100	160	100	9	c/	172	100	54	c/	118	100	70	c/	58	c/	12	c/
Police	127	75	123	77	4	c/	133	77	33	c/	100	85	40	c/	34	c/	6	c/
Parents or relatives	7	4	5	3	2	c/	3	2	2	c/	1	1	1	c/	1	c/		
Other individuals	21	12	20	13	1	c/	30	17	14	c/	16	13	19	c/	15	c/	4	c/
School department	6	4	4	2	2	c/	3	2	2	c/	1	1	4	c/	4	c/		
All other	8	5	8	5			3	2	3	c/			6	c/	4	c/	2	c/
Sex offense	296	100	266	100	30	c/	83	c/	35	c/	48	c/	140	100	130	100	10	c/
Police	158	53	142	53	16	c/	74	c/	30	c/	44	c/	107	77	101	78	6	c/
Parents or relatives	46	16	37	14	9	c/	5	c/	1	c/	4	c/	9	6	8	6	1	c/
Other individuals	22	7	21	8	1	c/	2	c/	2	c/			5	4	5	4		
School department	20	7	20	8									3	2	3	2		
All other	50	17	46	17	4	c/	2	c/	2	c/			16	11	13	10	3	c/
Ungovernable behavior or running away	761	100	721	100	38	c/	441	100	193	100	278	100	504	100	473	100	31	c/
Police	480	48	369	51	11	c/	295	46	162	50	115	42	235	47	228	48	7	c/
Parents or relatives	204	26	175	24	29	c/	351	42	131	36	123	44	132	26	123	26	9	c/
Other individuals	50	6	42	6	8	c/	19	3	13	4	6	2	25	5	25	5		
School department	41	5	39	5	2	c/	10	1	9	2	1	b/	17	3	14	3	3	c/
All other	106	14	98	14	8	c/	62	10	29	8	33	12	97	19	83	18	14	c/
Other reasons	292	100	266	100	26	c/	184	100	75	c/	109	100	301	100	285	100	12	c/
Police	94	32	91	34	3	c/	68	37	18	c/	50	46	135	45	131	45	4	c/
Parents or relatives	14	5	10	4	4	c/	7	4	4	c/	3	3	4	2	4	2		
Other individuals	12	4	12	4			33	18	7	c/	26	24	13	4	11	4	2	c/
School department	159	55	140	53	19	c/	72	39	44	c/	28	25	136	45	134	46	2	c/
All other	13	4	13	5			4	2	2	c/	2	2	13	4	9	3	4	c/

a/ Includes all Mexicans

b/ Less than 1 percent.

c/ Percent not computed when base is less than 100.

Table 9.--Juvenile-delinquency cases, 1942: Disposition of case and source of reference to court; boys' and girls' cases, by race, disposed of by 20 courts that reported on individual cases, in selected geographic divisions

Disposition of case and source of reference to court	Delinquency cases															
	East North Central Division						South Atlantic Division						All other geographic divisions			
	Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite		Total, all races	Percent	White a/		Negro and other nonwhite	
			Number	Percent	Number	Percent			Number	Percent	Number	Percent			Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total cases	10,317		9,511		806		8,099		3,870		4,229		7,377		7,082		295	
Boys' cases	8,547		7,894		653		6,733		3,264		3,469		6,175		5,963		212	
Probation officer to supervise	1,193	100	964	100	229	100	1,238	100	632	100	606	100	1,695	100	1,622	100	73	b/
Police	923	77	744	77	179	78	1,017	82	512	81	505	83	1,404	74	1,357	75	47	b/
Parents or relatives	37	3	18	2	19	8	73	6	43	7	30	5	85	4	81	3	4	b/
Other individuals	34	3	27	3	7	3	80	6	35	6	45	7	118	6	116	6	2	b/
School department	154	13	132	14	22	10	48	4	33	5	15	3	209	11	201	11	8	b/
All other	45	4	43	4	2	1	20	2	9	1	11	2	99	5	87	5	12	b/
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	6,119	100	5,805	100	314	100	3,585	100	1,715	100	1,870	100	2,943	100	2,882	100	61	b/
Police	5,383	88	5,112	88	271	86	3,146	88	1,405	82	1,681	90	2,296	78	2,258	78	38	b/
Parents or relatives	88	1	80	1	8	3	104	3	51	3	53	3	90	3	88	3	2	b/
Other individuals	347	6	338	6	9	3	221	6	130	8	91	5	373	13	368	13	5	b/
School department	244	4	226	4	18	5	87	2	49	3	38	2	190	6	189	6	1	b/
All other	57	1	49	1	8	3	27	1	20	1	7	c/	74	2	58	2	16	b/
Committed or referred to an institution	458	100	393	100	59	b/	827	100	342	100	485	100	354	100	300	100	54	b/
Police	33	74	299	75	36	b/	600	73	207	61	393	81	242	68	219	73	23	b/
Parents or relatives	17	4	16	4	1	b/	141	17	85	25	56	11	24	7	20	7	4	b/
Other individuals	11	2	9	2	2	b/	25	3	6	2	19	4	15	4	13	4	2	b/
School department	51	11	43	11	8	b/	20	2	15	4	5	1	17	5	16	5	1	b/
All other	42	9	32	8	10	b/	41	5	26	8	13	3	56	16	32	11	24	b/
All other dispositions	777	100	726	100	51	c/	1,083	100	575	100	508	100	983	100	959	100	24	b/
Police	732	94	689	95	43	b/	927	86	510	89	417	82	882	90	807	91	16	b/
Parents or relatives	17	2	15	2	2	b/	26	3	21	4	5	1	17	2	17	2	.....	.....
Other individuals	1	c/	1	c/	.....	.....	80	7	22	4	58	12	32	3	31	3	1	b/
School department	11	2	10	1	1	b/	15	1	8	1	7	1	14	1	13	1	1	b/
All other	16	2	11	2	5	b/	35	3	14	2	21	4	37	4	31	3	6	b/
Girls' cases	1,770		1,617		153		1,366		606		760		1,202		1,119		83	
Probation officer to supervise	471	100	430	100	41	b/	253	100	129	100	124	100	447	100	427	100	20	b/
Police	227	48	212	49	15	b/	145	57	84	49	61	65	275	61	266	62	9	b/
Parents or relatives	82	17	68	16	14	b/	69	27	36	28	33	27	53	12	50	12	3	b/
Other individuals	24	5	24	6	.....	.....	11	4	4	3	7	6	21	5	20	5	1	b/
School department	78	17	69	16	9	b/	22	9	19	15	3	2	65	15	62	14	3	b/
All other	60	13	57	13	3	b/	6	3	6	5	.....	.....	33	7	29	7	4	b/
Dismissed, adjusted, or held open without further action	769	100	696	100	73	b/	661	100	230	100	431	100	393	100	369	100	24	b/
Police	380	50	350	50	30	b/	445	67	123	53	322	75	200	51	188	51	12	b/
Parents or relatives	130	17	108	16	22	b/	108	16	50	22	58	13	37	9	35	9	2	b/
Other individuals	87	11	80	12	7	b/	52	8	23	10	29	7	45	12	41	11	4	b/
School department	123	16	113	16	10	b/	30	5	20	9	10	4	83	21	83	23	.....	.....
All other	49	6	45	6	4	b/	20	3	14	6	6	1	28	7	22	6	6	b/
Committed or referred to an institution	184	100	169	100	15	b/	213	100	97	b/	116	100	194	100	174	100	20	b/
Police	85	46	77	46	8	b/	79	37	26	b/	53	46	100	52	94	54	6	b/
Parents or relatives	29	16	27	16	2	b/	72	34	44	b/	28	24	33	17	31	18	2	b/
Other individuals	6	3	6	3	.....	.....	11	5	7	b/	4	3	3	1	2	1	1	b/
School department	13	7	12	7	1	b/	13	6	10	b/	3	3	6	3	5	3	1	b/
All other	51	28	47	28	4	b/	38	18	10	b/	28	24	52	27	42	24	10	b/
All other dispositions	346	100	322	100	24	b/	239	100	150	100	89	b/	184	100	149	100	19	b/
Police	253	73	245	76	8	b/	175	73	122	81	53	b/	96	57	89	60	7	b/
Parents or relatives	40	12	31	10	9	b/	22	9	9	6	13	b/	30	18	27	18	3	b/
Other individuals	8	2	7	1	1	c/	16	7	4	3	12	b/	5	3	5	3	.....	.....
School department	19	5	16	5	3	c/	16	7	8	5	8	b/	11	7	10	7	1	b/
All other	26	8	25	8	1	c/	10	4	7	5	3	b/	24	15	18	12	8	b/

a/ Includes all Mexicans.
b/ Percent not computed when base is less than 100.
c/ Less than 1 percent.

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THE CHILD

Vol. 8 January 1944 No. 7

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All-Day Neighborhood Schools for City Children

Employment of Children in Bowling Alleys

NITED STATES
PARTMENT OF LABOR
HILDREN'S BUREAU

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JAN 21 1944

THE CHILD

MONTHLY BULLETIN

Volume 8, Number 7 January 1944

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UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY

CHILDREN'S BUREAU
KATHARINE F. LENROOT, CHIEF

WE ARE fighting again for human freedom and especially for the future of our children in a free world. Children must be safeguarded—and they can be safeguarded—in the midst of this total war so that they can live and share in that future.—*A Children's Charter in Wartime.*

• INTER-AMERICAN COOPERATION •

Nutrition Problems and Programs in Latin America in 1943

By Marjorie M. Heseltine

Consultant in Nutrition, U. S. Children's Bureau

Note.—The statements in this article are based on three sources: (1) First-hand observations in the course of 3½ months spent in Uruguay, Paraguay, Argentina, and Peru; (2) conversations with leaders in nutrition work in other American Republics; and (3) reading of books, bulletins, and journals published in the respective countries and by such Inter-American agencies as the Pan American Sanitary Bureau.

Nutrition work is evolving rapidly in Latin America, and it is realized that this article, which was accurate at the time of the author's visit—April to July 1943—may not properly represent the present situation.

The opportunity to spend some months in looking into nutrition problems and programs in Latin America came as a result of the request of the Eighth Pan American Child Congress that the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood proceed without delay to study this matter of prime concern for the welfare of the children of the Americas. A nutrition committee was appointed by the International Council of the Institute and was instructed to report to the special session of the Council held in Montevideo May 28–30, 1943. The United States was represented on the nutrition committee by the First Secretary of our Embassy in Uruguay, and I was assigned to act as a technical adviser in drawing up the report. The visits to Paraguay and Peru were made at the invitation of the health ministries of the respective governments. As for Argentina, Buenos Aires is the home of the National Institute of Nutrition, and a nutritionist would no more think of leaving that unique agency out of her itinerary than a South American social worker would consider complete a trip to the United States that did not include a visit to Hull House.

Try as did the nutrition committee of the Institute to focus its attention on the nutrition of children, and women of childbearing age, it could not escape consideration of the factors that affect the entire population, of which mothers and children are the most nutritionally vulnerable group. Consequently much of its report dealt with such fundamentals as food supplies and services in the fields of health and education. The problems that the committee called to the attention of the Council differ in degree rather than in kind from those that we have faced and are facing in this country. The measures that have been undertaken in solution of those problems are in some instances sufficiently different in emphasis to challenge us to a reevaluation of our own approach.

The individuals and agencies closest to the situation in the various countries agree that widespread malnutrition exists, especially in the lower-income groups that make up the majority of the population in any country. First among the causes of malnutrition is lack of food. With a few notable exceptions the Latin American countries do not produce enough of foods of high nutritive value to maintain the population in a state of good nutrition even if the entire supply were distributed equitably, as it is not. As in the United States, some of the richest agricultural land is given over to the cultivation of nonfood crops such as cotton, or foods of limited nutritive value, such as sugar. In some countries a large part of the national income is derived from the exportation of foods, such as the meats of Argentina and Uruguay and the bananas of the Central American Republics. In those very countries, however, a substantial part of the people may not have enough meat or enough fruit to eat. Undeveloped facilities for transportation to the sparsely settled parts of the countries and inadequate purchasing power are barriers to adequate diets even in the rich agricultural nations. In regions that do not have a safe water supply, full advantage cannot be taken of nutritionally valuable raw vegetables and fruits for fear they may be contaminated with disease organisms. Similarly, lack of refrigeration in the tropics interferes with full utilization of the fish sup-

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ply along the coast, and thus a protein food of high quality is not widely available to populations whose diet may be especially deficient in that one nutrient. In normal times imports helped to supplement domestic food production; war-born restrictions in shipping have brought about a worsening of the food situation in a number of countries.

Although less-than-optimum nutrition is unanimously conceded to be more prevalent among the poor, it is by no means limited to that economic group. Lack of knowledge of food values and of the relation of food to health prevents individuals of all classes of society from making the wisest choices from the foods that are readily available. It seems ironical, for example, that the present-day inhabitants of Peru, one of the countries that is credited with giving that noble vegetable the white potato to the world, should much prefer rice—and polished rice at that.

Improvement in the food supply and in its distribution is high on the list of national plans for better nutrition. The work has both its long-range and its immediate aspects. Little is known of the nutritive value of certain foods that make up a large part of the diet, especially of isolated peoples in a country like Colombia. It is necessary to make complete analyses, including mineral and vitamin determinations, of different strains of these foods and of the same strain grown on various soils. Mandioca, which is to the diet of many dwellers in tropical America as is wheat to the peoples of temperate zones, is a food that must be studied in much more detail to appraise its full contribution to the diet. Small wonder then that Brazil points to food research as one of the cornerstones of its national nutrition program. Brazil is one of several republics in which technical and financial assistance from the United States is helping in the study of basic foods and in the improvement of food production. Obviously it takes time to build up disease-resistant strains of cereal crops and to increase the milk yield of cows. Meanwhile some countries are facing critical food shortages that call for immediate action. Uruguay experienced one of the worst droughts in its history in the summer (our winter) of 1942–43, with the result that its supplies of such staples as meat and potatoes fell far below the normal demand. As an emergency measure the Government entered into the purchase and sale of these foods, establishing markets accessible to low-income families. Peru was forced to take somewhat similar action when there was a partial crop failure of its staple food, rice.

Even in years of high production, there is need for furnishing food to families and individuals unable to obtain an adequate diet through their own efforts alone. Leaders everywhere in the fields of social welfare and public health recognize that adequate purchasing power rests upon general economic betterment. Pending the initiation of national schemes for social insurance and similar measures, it is necessary to see that people are fed.

Public feeding programs are therefore a conspicuous feature of nutrition programs in many Latin American Republics. These take many forms. Government restaurants in the poorer quarters of large cities offer meals at nominal cost. They are patronized largely by manual workers and their families.

In some Government restaurants, there are separate rooms for men, women, and children. Some social-welfare leaders who pay full tribute to these projects as a health measure consider that the separation according to sex and age is a threat to the integrity of family life. That charge cannot be made against the public dining hall in Mexico City, which is open exclusively to family groups and where it is estimated that 65 percent of the patrons are under 16 years of age. Such family dining rooms were described in some detail in *The Child* for June 1942.

In the countries that I visited many projects for serving meals serve only certain groups rather than a cross section of the population with lowest incomes. Dining rooms for pregnant women and nursing mothers are maintained by both Government agencies and private philanthropic organizations. In one of the maternal refectories that I had the good fortune to visit I saw an especially abundant and appetizing meal being served in cheerful surroundings in a convent founded some 400 years ago. The mothers had an opportunity to bathe themselves and their babies before sitting down to dinner, parking the babies in immaculate bassinets within easy reach.

The noon meal and between-meal lunches are important features of all projects for the day care of children of working mothers. In the "Kindergarten of the Americas" (so named because it was established by United States citizens resident in Asunción as an expression of good neighborliness) in Paraguay's capital city of Asunción, the noon meal is planned to supplement the diet that students from the School for Health Visitors have found the children to be receiving at home morning and night. Once a week the mothers of the children enrolled in the Kindergarten of the Americas come an hour earlier than usual to call for their children so

that they can have a demonstration lesson in some aspect of child care.

School feeding projects are in operation in at least the largest cities of most of the republics, and they are being extended. Only the newer school buildings are likely to have provisions for serving meals; otherwise, children from several city schools are likely to go to a central place for their breakfast, noon meal, or both meals. In some cities the people's restaurants have rooms set aside for serving breakfasts and lunches to children of school age. For the most part, these meals are served free, and only to children who are known to come from low-income families and are presumed to be undernourished. The source of the funds for the maintenance of these school feeding projects varies widely. Many were initiated by one or more socially minded citizens and continue to receive private contributions even after the Government has taken over the main support of the enterprise. In one country the Government funds for school feeding come from a tax on soft drinks; in another the proceeds from one of the lotteries are set aside for this purpose. The adequacy of the meal or meals served at school depends largely on two factors, the resources available and the ability of the administrators.

In fertile agricultural areas school gardens make it possible to serve more nutritious meals at moderate cost. In one State in Argentina such gardens have been compulsory since 1850.

As official school feeding programs become more and more extensive, the necessity for expert administration is being recognized. The State of Córdoba in Argentina is an example of a government that has set up detailed standards for the operation of school feeding projects.

Provision of food to individuals and groups that would otherwise be undernourished takes other forms besides meals served in restaurants. An auxiliary service of some of the Government restaurants is the dispensing of cooked food to be taken home to those who are unable to come to the central eating place.

Unquestionably the most usual means of improving the diet is through supplying milk to infants. The milk station is a well-nigh universal part of a maternal and child-health center. For, although a comparatively small proportion of infants are dependent on bottle feeding, these would fare very poorly indeed in some cities if they were dependent on commercial milk supplies. Through the milk station, with which is sometimes combined a center for the collection and distribution of human milk, day's feedings prepared in accordance with the physician's recommendations are made available to babies.

In every country the leaders in the fields of child health and welfare recognize the necessity for accompanying direct relief measures with instruction in the best use of whatever resources may be available. It is generally thought that instruction in foods and nutrition should be tied in as closely as possible with the dispensing of the food itself. The following statement by the head of a normal school in Colombia strikes a responsive chord among nutritionists and health educators in the United States:

> On examining the food traditions of our people, we note how decisive an influence ignorance and age-old habits have on the poor choice of the daily diet. The remedy is at hand: Education. But education in the true sense of the word. Not mere propaganda, which is hardly an aid in teaching campaigns. Let us make the school lunches educational centers in which the children eat the food that, in accordance with scientific standards, they should eat; not what they are in the habit of eating in their homes. This is the only way to form habits of correct eating. Good habits are acquired by practicing them; not by hearing them talked about.

Instruction of mothers in the care and feeding of children is, of course, an integral feature of maternal and child-health services where these are fully developed. In a newly equipped maternal and child-health center in Lima, there are facilities for instruction in the preparation of meals, the making of children's clothing, and the selection of playthings. The teaching is done by graduates of the course in child care given at the Children's Hospital. In Buenos Aires one of the schools of social service maintains a teaching center in a typical one-room apartment in a multiple dwelling that houses hundreds of families with very low incomes. Classes in the various aspects of homemaking and family-life education are held each afternoon. The demonstration classes in food selection and preparation are taught by nutritionists from the teaching staff of the National Institute of Nutrition. In Montevideo mothers whose children are under supervision in the clinics of the Children's Council are invited to attend food classes. During the past winter these classes stressed not only the preparation of low-cost foods of high nutritive value but also the construction and use of fireless cookers, because the combination of drought and curtailed shipping had brought about a drastic shortage of fuel.

The many activities designed to ameliorate distress do not preoccupy national leaders to the exclusion of long-range plans for nutritional

betterment. At least 13 of the Republics have set up an official nutrition agency, in some cases a branch of some Government department, in others a coordinating council. As in the United States, the responsibility for nutrition work may be divided among several departments. Well toward the top of the list of the functions of these nutrition agencies is research along various lines.

As a basis for a well-directed national nutrition program, there must be studies of the food value of all staple articles of diet. There must be determinations of the food requirements of individuals at all stages in the life cycle and under very different environments. Physiologists and biochemists in Colombia, for example, know that the miner in the highlands of the interior lives at a different metabolic tempo from a fisherman on the Pacific coast and that the needs of both must be known before nutritional standards for the population can be established.

As a preliminary to nutritional planning, many countries must devise means for compiling much more accurate data on national food production than they now possess. When an agricultural economist attempted to study consumption levels in the various South American Republics for an international conference in 1941, in Montevideo, he was able to obtain few data from some countries for such a nutritionally important food as milk. He was driven to the expedient of taking the number of cattle in the country, assuming an arbitrary production per animal, and dividing the total figure by the population. I visited one of the countries that had shown up pretty well according to his estimate and I was obliged to conclude that the cows had not been told what was expected of them.

Studies of food consumption by representative groups of the population are needed to reveal what people actually do eat and what are the factors that affect food consumption. Considerable progress has been made in studying the consumption of wage-earning families in the larger South American cities, and the findings have been compiled in convenient form by Dr. Robert M. Woodbury for the International Labor Office.[1] These studies should be extended to cover rural as well as urban families and to include the indigenous peoples that constitute a large part of the population in many of the countries. And, finally, throughout the Americas there is need to assess the nutritional status of representative groups in the population, especially children, and women during the reproductive period.

To carry out the many activities that make up a comprehensive nutrition program calls for a large number of trained workers. Two general types of workers are needed. The largest group would be made up of the physicians, nurses, social workers, and teachers who are sufficiently well-grounded in the principles of nutrition as they relate to their respective fields so that they can make the most of every opportunity to deal with the effects of malnutrition and to preserve good nutrition. The second group would be a much smaller body of specialists in nutrition, who, according to the nature and extent of their training, can act as teachers to the professional groups already mentioned; who can carry on research in all aspects of foods and nutrition; and who can administer food services in hospitals, child-caring institutions, dining rooms for school children, people's restaurants, and other centers for group feeding.

Several countries have made a beginning in including courses in nutrition in curricula for training professional workers in the fields of health, welfare, and education. A few are providing training for specialists in the field of nutrition.

International scholarships to the National Institute of Nutrition in Argentina and to several institutions of higher learning in the United States provide opportunities for training to those countries that do not yet have facilities within their borders. The individuals who come to this country to prepare for leadership in nutrition in their homelands are likely to be physicians, social workers, or educators. They are likely to have a broad appreciation of the contribution of nutrition to national welfare. Such appreciation was not widespread in the United States before the National Nutrition Conference of 1941. It is to be hoped that specialized workers—nutritionists, physicians, nurses, teachers, social workers—to whom these visitors from the countries to the South come for guidance in their programs of study and observation in nutrition will embody the definition of a specialist attributed to Nicholas Murray Butler, who is quoted as saying: "A specialist should not be a narrow man but a broad man sharpened to a point."

[1] Woodbury, Robert Morse: Food Consumption and Dietary Surveys in the Americas—Results, Methods; Report presented by the International Labor Office to the Eleventh Pan American Sanitary Conference, held in Rio de Janeiro, September 7 to 18, 1942. International Labor Office, Montreal, 1942. 64 pp.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

INTER-AMERICAN NOTES

Ninth Pan American Child Congress

The Ninth Pan American Child Congress is scheduled to meet in Caracas, Venezuela, during the second half of December 1946. This designation, made by the International Council of the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood, Montevideo, Uruguay, in agreement with the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, has been accepted by the Government of Venezuela.

Mexico

Woman and Child Workers

The Division of Woman and Child Workers in the Federal Department of Labor of Mexico enforces the law concerning the employment of women and children and acts in other ways for the improvement of the condition of working women and children. To this end the staff of the Division made, in the year ended August 31, 1943, 630 inspections involving 6,000 women workers.

The staff of the Division made a study of industrial home work and presented a report to the Second National Congress of Industrial Hygiene and Medicine. The Congress, acting on this report, passed resolutions asking for medical service for women and children engaged in industrial home work.

A study was also made of the working and living conditions of the large numbers of boys—not protected by the labor law—who make a living by selling baskets outside markets and by carrying packages for customers. The decision was in favor of regulating and supervising this work and taking other protective measures. Members of the Division's staff are now engaged in carrying out this decision.

Secretaría del Trabajo y Previsión Social. Memoria de Labores. Mexico, 1942–43.

First Inter-American Congress on Population

The First Inter-American Congress on Population, held in Mexico City in October 1943 under the auspices of the Mexican Government, was attended by representatives from almost all American countries and from the Pan American Union, the Pan American Sanitary Bureau, the International Labor Office, and other international organizations.

The Congress approved resolutions for the regular recording and compiling of vital statistics according to uniform methods. The Congress also asked for the adoption of measures for the physical and moral improvement of the peoples of America and for the practical application of policies proposed at the Congress on Indian Affairs recently held in Mexico.

For carrying out its resolutions the Congress recommended the establishment of an Inter-American Population Institute.

El Universal, October 12–20, 1943, and El Popular, October 23, 1943, both of Mexico City.

El Salvador

First National Child-Welfare Congress

The First National Child-Welfare Congress of El Salvador was held in San Salvador, the capital of the country, November 4–7, 1943.

The Congress was organized by the White Cross, a private child-welfare agency, on the occasion of its twenty-fifth anniversary, as a means of stimulating interest in the welfare of children.

In addition to residents of El Salvador, persons attending the Congress included a representative of the National Children's Bureau (Patronato Nacional de la Infancia) of Costa Rica and a representative of the United States Children's Bureau, stationed at the time in Costa Rica.

After a reading of reports and discussion of various child-welfare problems, the Congress passed resolutions asking, among other things, for the drafting of a Children's Code as a charter of childhood's rights; the enactment of laws for the protection of employed mothers and children; the establishment of a system of social insurance; better protection of the health of young children; and provision of low-cost hygienic housing.

A recommendation was also made that the country join the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood.

From reports in San Salvador newspapers, November 1943.

GENERAL CHILD WELFARE

All-Day Neighborhood Schools for City Children

By Adele Franklin, *Director of the All-Day Neighborhood Schools Committee of the Public Education Association, New York City*

Rural areas have a neighborliness which makes contacts between teachers and other citizens easy and natural. Then, too, most teachers live in the small rural towns or counties where they teach, and readily become identified with them. Often, the school is the only large public building for many miles and becomes, ipso facto, a community center.

A Large City Includes Many Communities.

But in a large city there are communities within communities, populations made up of varied national groups, from varied social and economic levels, which tend to keep to themselves. In many communities the school has been a place apart. Teachers have come to the school and gone home, with little thought of the life going on outside its walls. Parents have come to the school but seldom, and then, unfortunately, too often only when their children were "in trouble." Most parents have not felt free to seek the help of the school; nor have they believed they had a responsibility to it either as citizens, or as parents, the welfare of whose children depends on the welfare of every other child in the school.

A growing understanding, by educators and parents alike, of child nature and of child growth and development has led to many efforts to break down the isolation of schools from their neighborhoods in our large cities. With this understanding has come a broadening of the school's conception of its function. It seeks not simply to impart knowledge and skills, but to train citizens of a democratic state. It recognizes that it cannot do this unless it becomes a living force in its neighborhood. It recognizes also that the child at school is the same individual as the child at home, that his life in each environment affects profoundly his life in the other, that only if school and home cooperate in working for his interests will his full and harmonious development be possible.

An attempt to establish a new pattern for the school as a community agency is being made in the All-Day Neighborhood Schools in New York City, a demonstration conducted by the New York Board of Education with the cooperation of the Public Education Association.

The demonstration was organized in the fall of 1942 in two public elementary schools in New York City: A school in the Chelsea section on the lower west side, where families of Italian, Greek, and Puerto Rican extraction predominate, and a school in the Harlem section where all the pupils are Negro. Six regularly licensed teachers who are on duty from 11 a. m. until 5 p. m. are assigned to each school to help the classroom teachers carry out the program. The Public Education Association supplies an educational director and an assistant who work with both group and classroom teachers, and a social worker for the Harlem school. Funds were not available in 1942–43 for a social worker for both schools. The demonstration was organized after 6 years of experience in the Chelsea school, where a social worker had been attached to the staff and had proved to us conclusively the need for such service. The board of education, however, supplied a social worker for the Chelsea school starting in November 1943.

A community-relations committee of members of the community, both professional and nonprofessional, worked throughout the year to effect closer cooperation between the school and the home and community.

Purpose of Demonstration Threefold.

The purpose of the demonstration is threefold. It seeks to give the children a modern and enriched curriculum, through which they learn from life as well as from textbooks, and have the opportunity to practice democracy as members of dynamic, functioning groups. It seeks to provide for the 200 children in each of the two schools an integrated program of in-school work and after-school play. And, finally, the demonstration seeks to identify the school with its neighborhood—to make it really a community center, part of the very life of the people. The board of education believes that these three

purposes are in reality one and that none can be satisfactorily achieved without the others.

It is impossible to isolate one aspect of the demonstration and say that this alone was responsible for the closer identification of the schools with their neighborhoods. Although the social worker and the community-relations committee had more direct responsibility for this phase of the work, other factors—the changed and vitalized program of the schools and the after-school and All-Day Summer Play School recreation centers—took vitally important parts.[1] The participation in neighborhood-community work by principals and teachers in the schools and by members of the staff of the demonstration was also important. The principals of both schools have been active in community work and have long recognized the importance of the relation between the school and the community and between the school and the home. The needs of the individual child have been stressed in both schools.

Intensive Case Work Needed by Families.

One social worker in a school the size of the one in Harlem cannot do intensive case work with the families needing it. One of the chief functions of the worker is to give immediate service to children who present overt difficulties in the classroom, and by interpreting to the teachers family backgrounds of the children, to assist the teachers in handling the children with more understanding. She also helps to create a more friendly relationship between parents and school. Her third function is that of referral. Families in need of the service of a family or other neighborhood agency often are wholly unaware of the existence of such an agency or are unwilling to avail themselves of its services. Repeated interviews may be necessary to help them, of their own volition, to seek and to use the resources at hand. The results of this type of work are difficult to measure, but many instances might be cited of children formerly apathetic, hostile, unruly, or shy and withdrawn, who were helped directly or indirectly by the social worker to become far more happy and adjusted members of the school society. Many families were, through her, helped to find the means to better their own condition.

Parents will come to a school, and keep on coming there, only when they feel themselves part of that school in a real sense. Parents will feel part of a school when they know their presence is wanted, when the doors are open, when the teachers are glad to talk over the children and their problems. Educational meetings with fine speakers, and elaborate entertainments, will not bring parents to a school unless they feel genuinely welcome there. For this reason it seemed important to provide a place in the school to which parents could go, where they could have comfortable seats, and where they could talk quietly with teachers and social worker. Again, parents can feel that they are a part of the school if they can contribute to it, if they can really identify themselves with its work. Individual parents have helped to some extent with the work of both the demonstration schools. They have acted as aids to club leaders in the recreation centers, have in certain instances taken small groups for special work, have assisted with the preparation of refreshments, and have helped in many other ways. Both schools wanted to operate summer play schools to care for the children of working women. The money for these schools was not available this year, and the parents set themselves to do all they could to raise that money. In Harlem, where the work was new, they were able to do less than in Chelsea, but they ran motion pictures in the school, which brought in substantial sums. In Chelsea one of the high spots of the school year was the 2-day fair held by the parents in June, which brought in $600, helping to keep the school open during the summer months.

Special Staff Member Would Know Community.

This is only a beginning. The parents' organizations represent a relatively small number of the parents. To develop the school as a community agency a special staff member should be assigned who would really know the community and the setting in which the children and parents live. This person would meet the leaders in the community, acquaint them with the school program, and enlist their support; he would familiarize the school staff with the community strength and needs and enable the teachers to enrich and vitalize their classroom work with material relating to community conditions. He would help bring the school and the neighborhood together in a truly democratic community.[2]

[1] The Play School at the Chelsea school has always been affiliated with the Play Schools Association. In 1943 the Association conducted one at the Harlem school.

[2] A fuller description of the All-Day Neighborhood Schools is given in a book by Miss Franklin and Agnes E. Benedict, entitled, Play Centers for School Children; a guide to their establishment and operation (William Morrow & Co., New York, 1943, 153 pp.). See also We Build for Citizenship, by Miss Franklin, in Childhood Education, Vol. 20, No. 1 (September 1943), pp. 23–27.

Recommendations Adopted by Children's Bureau Conference on Services for Negro Children

December 6 and 7, 1943

After consideration of the Children's Bureau responsibility to serve the needs of all the Nation's children of every race, creed, and color, particularly the needs of disadvantaged and handicapped children whoever and wherever they are, the members of this conference, having reviewed the special needs of children in minority groups, of whom Negro children form the greater part, recommend:

1. That the Children's Bureau strengthen and extend services to Negro and other minority children in both rural and urban areas.

2. That the Children's Bureau increase the participation of qualified Negro personnel in its program for children in the United States.

3. That the Children's Bureau encourage in every possible way the participation of Negro professional staff in the State operation of Federal-aid programs.

4. That national private organizations concerned with children be encouraged to strengthen and extend their programs to meet more fully the needs of children in minority groups.

5. That the Children's Bureau, in cooperation with other agencies, explore the mental-hygiene implications, for children of both minority and majority groups, in the areas of racial tension.

6. That opportunities for professional and postgraduate training be extended for doctors, nurses, midwives, social workers, nutritionists, and health-education workers with special competence in work with children, and that appropriate opportunities be developed for training of nonprofessional persons who work with children.

7. That the Children's Bureau, in collaboration with other agencies, concern itself immediately with a training program in matters pertaining to race for professional workers, including health workers, social workers, recreation leaders, law-enforcement workers, and teachers, in order that Negro and white children who are under the guidance and protection of these workers may receive understanding and sympathetic direction.

In view of the preceding recommendation it is further recommended that the Children's Bureau collaborate with agencies, organizations, and foundations in the preparation for professional schools of teaching material in matters pertaining to race.

8. That the Children's Bureau prepare a manual or a supplement to the pamphlet, "Selection and Training of Volunteers in Child Care," which would adequately interpret the subject of racial attitudes and relationships among minority groups.

9. That the gathering, tabulation, and analysis of statistics by the Children's Bureau be broken down according to race, color, nationality, or in any other manner that will serve areas and as an administrative tool be advantageous in building programs on a sound foundation of factual material.

10. (*a*) That in recognition of the high incidence of tuberculosis among Negroes, especially throughout childhood and adolescence, the Children's Bureau cooperate with other public and private agencies in promoting the control and treatment of tuberculosis among children. (*b*) That in recognition of the serious problems involved in sex education and the control of venereal diseases, particularly among children, the Children's Bureau cooperate with public and private agencies for the treatment and control of these problems and in educational programs with regard to them.

11. That the Children's Bureau promote the improvement and expansion of existing facilities for the day care of Negro children and for the creation of new facilities to meet the great needs of Negro working mothers whose children are not receiving adequate care and protection.

12. That the advice of standing advisory committees to the Children's Bureau be reviewed and evaluated with special attention to the possibility of increasing Negro membership on each of these committees and providing adequate Negro representation on committees to be appointed, such membership to be chosen on the basis of skills as well as understanding in matters pertaining to race.

13. That the Children's Bureau encourage States and local communities to utilize the participation of available Negro leaders and to develop such potential leadership as may be

available but is not yet in contact with public programs for children.

14. That although substantial progress has been made for all children, including children in minority groups, it is the experience in programs of Federal aid to the States that unless there are safeguards, Negroes will not receive equitable benefits, and these safeguards require:

(*a*) Legislative provisions to assure the equitable distribution of services to children on the basis of need.

(*b*) Administrative machinery, adequate to carry out this policy.

(*c*) Firm purpose on the part of the administrators of the Children's Bureau to administer precisely the Bureau's stated policy with regard to the distribution of services.

15. That in all conditions involving migration of families for war work and agricultural labor, the safeguards considered essential for children living in established communities should be strengthened, maintained, and extended for the benefit of migrant children.

16. That the Children's Bureau urge, whenever it has opportunity, that equality of treatment of all children, regardless of race or color, be made a fundamental policy in all programs of relief and rehabilitation for foreign nations.

17. That in recognition of the value of the present conference a similar conference be called by the Children's Bureau at an appropriate time with the participation of other Federal agencies concerned with children.

Juvenile Code Adopted in Alaska

In the spring of 1943 the Alaska Legislature adopted a Juvenile Code, which revised the juvenile-court law and abolished the Board of Children's Guardians. Under the new measure, which represents a great advance in this type of legislation for the Territory, the justice courts are given exclusive original jurisdiction over all children, regardless of race and color, who come within the classes set forth in the act (formerly the procedure for dealing with juveniles did not apply to Indian children); provision is made for dealing with children who have offended against the law as delinquents (formerly they were dealt with under criminal procedure); hearings are to be informal, without jury, and not open to the public, and adjudication of a case under this act is not to be deemed a conviction nor to impose civil disabilities that result from conviction on a criminal charge.

The new law provides that if, after hearing, a court finds that a child falls within the provisions of the act, the court shall (1) commit him to the Territorial Department of Public Welfare, or—if he has one-fourth or more Indian, Eskimo, or Aleut blood—to the Alaska Indian Service of the United States Department of the Interior; or (2) release him to his parent, guardian, or other suitable person, under the supervision of the Territorial Department of Public Welfare or the Alaska Indian Service. Fifty thousand dollars was made available to carry out the provisions of this act.

Additional provisions restrict jail detention of children under 18, provide for appointment of guardians, and permit the agency to which the child is committed to place him in a foster home or in care of a child-caring agency or institution. It may also supervise and set standards for foster homes, agencies, and institutions to which the children are committed. If the agency is designated as guardian of the child, it may place him for adoption. The custody of wards of the former Board of Children's Guardians was transferred to the Department of Public Welfare.

BOOK NOTE

AN INTRODUCTION TO GROUP THERAPY, by S. R. Slavson. Commonwealth Fund, New York, 1943. 352 pp. $2.

Group therapy, the author of this book points out, is a method of psychotherapy to be used, along with other types of psychiatric treatment, for children who need group experience but whose character malformations or inability to adapt themselves to ordinary group relations require a special type of group to help them achieve such experience satisfactorily.

The book reports an experiment, conducted by the Jewish Board of Guardians, New York, over a period of 8 years, in group therapy for selected children presenting personality and behavior difficulties.

• YOUNG WORKERS IN WARTIME •

Tenth National Conference on Labor Legislation

The program of action approved by the Tenth National Conference on Labor Legislation, called by the Secretary of Labor, in Kansas City, Mo., December 8 and 9, 1943, includes the following items of special interest to organizations and individuals concerned with child labor and youth employment and with the protection of pregnant women in industry:

Child Labor and Youth Employment.

The past 10 years have seen great advances in State legislative standards for the prevention of child labor and the safeguarding of young workers. The war, however, has brought great pressure on these standards, and the unprecedented number of children and youth drawn into employment during this period—often in occupations and under conditions which threaten their welfare and education—reemphasizes the importance of maintaining the legal protections that have been achieved and of planning for their extension to areas of employment not yet covered, as speedily as possible.

This conference therefore recommends that plans be made for revisions of State child-labor laws to achieve a basic 16-year minimum age, a maximum 8-hour day and 40-hour week for youth under 18, limitation of total hours of work and school to 8 a day and 40 a week, prohibition of night work, provision for lunch period and weekly day of rest, an 18-year minimum age for hazardous occupations, and provisions for employment or age certificates for youth under 18.

This conference, also realizing the grave problems that will confront the Nation after the war in the rapid demobilization out of industry of the great numbers of boys and girls who have left school for work, urges that State labor commissioners and organized labor give leadership and support to the planning of sound, constructive programs for youth that will give full opportunity for education and training to compensate for their premature withdrawal from school and to ensure their rightful place in the post-war world.

Apprenticeship Training.

Previous conferences on labor legislation have endorsed the program of apprenticeship under the sponsorship of the Federal Committee on Apprenticeship, which formerly was in the United States Department of Labor, now under the War Manpower Commission.

The activities of wartime have somewhat stymied the progress of apprenticeship in the skilled trades, but management and labor are recognizing more and more the need of emphasis on the proper training of skilled tradesmen through apprenticeship.

The field from which apprentices formerly were recruited has been gleaned by the armed forces, but returning veterans will be available for apprenticeship.

This conference therefore reaffirms the position previously adopted and endorses the program of apprenticeship advocated by the Federal Committee on Apprenticeship.

This conference also strongly urges all delegates here to give strength to such a program by encouraging this activity within their States through cooperation with the Federal and State agencies working in this field.

Employment Policy for Pregnant Women in Industry.

Increasing employment of women in industry necessitates special provisions for safeguarding the health and welfare of expectant mothers who are employed.

This conference urges State departments of labor and industrial establishments that employ women to discourage the practice of discharging or laying off women because of pregnancy; to encourage the adoption of policies concerning work assignments, working conditions, and provision for maternity leave that will promote the efficiency of the working force and protect the health of mothers and their infants, and to support community measures assuring adequate maternity care for employed women who cannot otherwise obtain such care.

Employment of Children in Bowling Alleys

By Ella Arvilla Merritt, Industrial Division

This war period has emphasized the importance of maintaining and strengthening the child-labor-law defenses that have been developed for protection of children. In a number of State legislatures meeting in 1943, standards for employment of children in bowling alleys were particular targets for attack. The need for upholding these standards is evidenced by many reports from school principals, teachers and counselors, labor-law administrators, and juvenile-court and other welfare officials in various parts of the country, deploring the conditions brought about by the employment of school children late at night in bowling alleys. For instance, according to a report from the department of labor in a large midwestern State, one school principal reported that 50 boys in her school were going to sleep in classes and falling behind in their school work. It was found that these boys were employed outside school hours as pin boys. In another large city it was reported that young bowling-alley workers were dropping out of school because they could not keep up both work and school.

Children Need Protection From Fatigue.

Adolescent children need special protection from fatigue. Late-night employment cuts down their time for essential sleep and rest and affects not only health but school progress. Such employment, which is often found in bowling alleys, not only affects the child's educational progress but results in tardiness and dropping out of school. Truancy may develop, which often leads to delinquency. The present shortage of teachers and school-attendance officers adds to the difficulties of combating a tendency to increased absenteeism on the part of working pupils.

Employment late at night may also subject youth to moral hazards. Often they leave work late at night in groups and, in seeking recreation for themselves after work, drift into situations that contribute to delinquency. It was reported to the Bureau in recent months that three boys in an eastern city went into a drinking place on the way home from work in a bowling alley and became intoxicated. (One was later sent to a reformatory.) In another State some 12- and 13-year-old boys were brought before the court for stealing tires when on their way home from work in a bowling alley at 2 a. m. Sometimes the moral hazard may be an unwholesome circumstance connected with the place of employment. In one large city in New York State, the school-attendance officer stated that there were only three bowling alleys in the city that did not sell liquor.

Hazards of Pin Setting.

Employment as a pin setter is accompanied by a very considerable accident hazard. Most of the injuries to pin boys are caused by balls and flying pins. Many of them result in fractures and severe bruises of fingers, hands, and toes, and some have even more serious effects. The fatigue of working at night, added to the fatigue caused by the physical exertion inherent in their work, reduces the alertness and agility of pin setters and thus increases the likelihood of accidents.

That pin setters are frequently injured in the course of their work is shown by accident statistics. In a recent study of school children working part time, made by the Children's Bureau in Baltimore, 17 pin setters, or 13 percent of a total of 128 school children under 16 years of age who reported that they were employed in bowling alleys, said that they had suffered injuries at work. In Illinois 371 industrial injuries to workers of all ages in bowling alleys were reported to the Illinois Industrial Commission in 1942; most of these workers were pin setters. In Wisconsin industrial accidents to pin boys under 18 years of age, as shown by workmen's compensation cases settled during the year 1942, numbered 66, or 14 percent of the total of 456 injuries to minors under 18 years.

Because of all these circumstances in connection with employment in bowling alleys many child-labor laws have established a higher minimum age for such employment than for general

types of employment, such as work in retail or service establishments or in factories. As early as 1911 the Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws recommended a minimum age of 16 for bowling-alley employment, although 14 was the age recommended at that time for general employment. Again in 1930 when the Uniform Child Labor Act was revised by the Conference, bowling alleys were included among the employments for which a minimum age of 16 was recommended. In recent years a few States have adopted an 18-year minimum age for this work. The International Association of Governmental Labor Officials, an organization of State and Federal labor administrators, in 1935, and the National Conference on Labor Legislation in 1938, recommended 18 as the minimum age for this employment. However, the general trend has been toward a 16-year minimum.

Legislative Trend Maintained Until War.

Up to the war emergency, this general legislative trend has been maintained. Minors under 16 were in most States excluded from work in bowling alleys, at least after 7 or 8 p. m. Although during the past year bills that would lower these standards were introduced in 14 States, recognition of the undesirability of enacting such legislation is seen in the fact that only 6 States actually passed such bills. (In 1 of these 6 States the new legislation has been ruled unconstitutional by the Attorney General.) In 1 additional State, relaxations have been made under a general 1943 emergency act. According to information received by the Bureau, in only 3 of these 7 States, however, does the relaxation actually permit employment of children under 16 at night.

At the present time, 20 State child-labor laws establish a minimum age of 16 years for employment as pin setters in bowling alleys; this age is higher than the age set for general employment in all except 1 of these States. In 15 other States and the District of Columbia, in which the minimum age for boys as pin setters is less than 16 (usually 14), prohibitions of work after 6, 7, or 8 p. m. applicable to employment of minors under 16 years of age, operate, in effect, to set a 16-year minimum age for work in bowling alleys during night hours. Thus in 35 States employment of minors under 16 later than 6 or 7 p. m., and in a few cases later than 8 p. m., is prohibited. Of the remaining States, in which employment of boys under 16 as pin setters is now permitted as late as 9, 10, or 12 p. m., or without any restriction on work at night, 2 permit only boys of 15 or over to engage in such work and specifically restrict such employment to certain nights during the week.

Contrary to Existing Law.

The fact that much of the employment of children in bowling alleys at the present time is contrary to existing law points to the need for encouraging better enforcement of present standards as well as preventing legislative lowering of standards. For instance, the 1942 report of the Rhode Island State Department of Labor states (p. 35):

> Numerous complaints have been received from truant officers, school principals, parents, and competing employers, reporting illegal employment of young children late at night for long hours, resulting in injuries to health, truancy, and delinquency. One particularly difficult problem in this regard has been the bowling alleys, which have almost universally disregarded the child-labor laws and have employed very young boys 7 nights a week until midnight. The school officials are constantly reporting boys who have been truant, and are unable to learn because of working nights as pin boys . . . While stores and service establishments are scheduling shorter hours in order to adjust business to the scarcity of available help, these recreational establishments continue to extend hours and to exploit younger workers at the expense of their health, education, and general well-being.

Adherence to the policies recommended by Government agencies especially concerned both with youth welfare and manpower needs would do much to protect children in this type of work. The policy established by the War Manpower Commission, in its consideration of youth power in relation to total manpower, emphasizes the importance of protecting the education and health of youth under 18 and giving them the fullest opportunity consistent with the war effort to complete their education. A statement of policy on part-time employment of school youth, issued jointly by the War Manpower Commission, the Office of Education, and the Children's Bureau, urges that children 14 and 15 years of age be not employed after 7 p. m. and that those of 16 and 17 be not employed after 10 p. m. This statement further recommends that the combined hours of school and work of minors under 16 should not exceed 8 a day, with hours of work limited to 3 on school days, and that the combined hours of school and work of youth 16 and 17 should in no case exceed 9 hours a day, with a maximum of 4 work hours on school days.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

• SAFEGUARDING THE HEALTH OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN •

More Than 130,000 Wives and Babies of Servicemen Benefit From EMIC

With 33,142 additional applications approved in November, the total number of servicemen's wives and sick infants that have received or are receiving care under the Emergency Maternity and Infant Care program reached 131,460 on December 1, 1943. All the States and Territories except North Dakota and Puerto Rico are now in a position to receive applications for care under the program.

A conference on the program was held by the Children's Bureau at Washington, December 10 and 11, 1943, in response to a resolution adopted by the Executive Board of the American Academy of Pediatrics.[1] Present at the conference were representatives designated by the American Medical Association; American Hospital Association; United States Public Health Service; American Association of Obstetricians, Gynecologists, and Abdominal Surgeons; American Academy of Pediatrics; American Gynecological Society; American Pediatric Society; Committee of Physicians for the Improvement of Medical Care; State and Territorial Health Officers; War Department; Navy Department; Army Emergency Relief; Navy Relief Society; American Red Cross; American Legion; five national women's organizations; and the medical and public-health members of the Children's Bureau Advisory Committee on Maternal and Child-Health Services. Dr. Martha M. Eliot, Associate Chief of the Children's Bureau, served as chairman of the conference.

Under the Emergency Maternity and Infant Care program the wife of any serviceman in the fourth, fifth, sixth, or seventh pay grade in the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, or Coast Guard may make application for care to the physician or clinic of her own choice. The application form, which is simple, can be obtained from him or from the State or local health department. In it the wife states her name and address, her husband's name, and his rating and serial number. The physician completes the application, indicating what hospital, if any, will be used. Either the applicant or the physician sends the form to the State health department. Both she and the physician are notified when the application is approved. Application forms can also be obtained from hospitals, local Red Cross chapters, and local health agencies.

[1] A report of this conference appeared in the Journal of the American Medical Association, vol. 123, no. 17 (Dec. 25, 1943), pp. 1125–1126.

Effect on Infant of Shortage of Protein in Mother's Diet During Pregnancy

That a prenatal diet low in protein during the latter part of pregnancy will result in an infant who will tend to be short, light in weight, and likely to receive a low pediatric rating in other respects is a conclusion reported by Bertha S. Burke and others in the *Journal of Pediatrics* for November 1943.[1] The paper is one of a series dealing with the importance, to both mother and infant, of diet during pregnancy; one of this series was noted in *The Child* for September 1943.

The conclusions reported are as follows:

1. In a group of 216 women whose diets were studied during pregnancy, it was found that only 10 percent consumed diets which met the amount of protein (85 gm.) recommended by the Food and Nutrition Board of the National Research Council for that period (fourth through ninth month). Sixty-eight percent of the diets contained less than 70 gm. of protein daily and 38 percent, less than 55 gm. daily for this period.

2. A significant relationship was found to exist between the protein content of the mother's diet during pregnancy and the birth length of her infant. This increase in birth length can be demonstrated with each additional increment of

[1] Burke, Bertha S., Vernette Vickers Harding, and Harold C. Stuart, M. D.: Nutrition Studies During Pregnancy, IV. Relation of protein content of mother's diet during pregnancy to birth length, birth weight, and condition of infant at birth. *Journal of Pediatrics*, Vol. 23, No. 5 (November 1943), pp. 506–516. Single copies of a reprint of this paper may be obtained by writing to the Children's Bureau, Washington.

protein in the prenatal diet irrespective of mother's height.

3. When the birth weights of the infants were considered in relation to the average number of grams of protein in the mothers' diets during pregnancy, it was found that an increase in birth weight [2] could also be demonstrated with each additional increment of protein in the prenatal diet.

4. Since the amount of protein in the prenatal diet seems to be a significant factor in determining birth length and weight, and since these are related to the physical ratings of the infants, the amount of protein in the mother's diet during pregnancy would appear to be a very important factor in determining the general physical condition of the infant at birth.

5. From this study it would appear that from the standpoint of birth length, birth weight, and general physical well-being of the infant at birth, the diet should be liberally supplied with protein during pregnancy. For practical purposes this study indicates that less than 75 gm. of protein daily during the latter part of pregnancy will result in an infant who will tend to be short, light in weight, and most likely to receive a low pediatric rating in other respects.

[2] There was a tendency for the women whose diets during pregnancy were poor to have more difficult types of delivery, despite the fact that they had on the average smaller infants than the women whose diets were good or excellent. The average number of hours of labor experienced by the primiparas in the two groups was the same.

BOOK NOTE

FAMILY SITUATIONS; an introduction to the study of child behavior, by James H. S. Bossard and Eleanor S. Boll. University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1943. 265 pp. $3.

Because man and his life are less readily subjected to measurement than the phenomena encountered in the physical sciences, we are slow in gathering material that is helpful in the understanding of the child in the light of family relationships, habits, and cultural setting. *Family Situations* is an attempt by two workers at the University of Pennsylvania to set up a possible method of study and to show how the method works, by illustrative examples. The authors believe that family "situations," as they call the peculiarly grouped stimuli that bring about reactions on the organism being studied (the child), can be used as precise tools in the study of behavior.

Part I is an explanation of the meaning and implications of this approach to child study. Part II gives examples of many types of family situation: The favored-child home, the nomadic family, and the misfit-in-the-neighborhood family are samples of the cases described under the three broad categories of "intra-family relationships," "family patterns," and "external factors." Part III undertakes to show briefly that sociology is in a position to make a contribution to the study of behavior through this distinctive approach.

While the authors recognize that no family will fit in under one, and one only, of the headings used, and that a mere beginning has been made in the classification of "situations," they have provided much food for thought in the case studies in which one factor or element looms large. The examples chosen for inclusion come from a wide variety of sources, in which the artist's insight into fictional characters, as well as the records of psychiatrists, sociologists, and social workers, are represented.

The bibliography reflects the wide fields of reference from which the authors have drawn.

Infancia, a Spanish edition of *The Child*, is now being published in Mexico City, Mexico, by the Instituto Panamericano de Bibliografía y Documentación, Sr. Miquel Ferrer, Director. A limited number of copies has been made available to persons in the United States through the assistance of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, and single copies may be had free by writing to the Children's Bureau, Washington 25 D. C. Subscriptions, at 60 cents (U. S. A.) a year, should be addressed to Instituto Panamericano de Bibliografía y Documentación, Apartado Postal 8626, Mexico, D. F.

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We believe that the protection of children from harmful child labor is a community enterprise of first importance dependent upon the cooperation of parents, employers, schools, and other community agencies.

— CHILD-LABOR MANIFESTO.

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PARTMENT OF LABOR
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UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY

CHILDREN'S BUREAU
KATHARINE F. LENROOT, CHIEF

WE ARE fighting again for human freedom and especially for the future of our children in a free world. Children must be safeguarded—and they can be safeguarded—in the midst of this total war so that they can live and share in that future.—*A Children's Charter in Wartime.*

• YOUNG WORKERS IN WARTIME •

Boys and Girls Employed in Agricultural Programs—1943

By Ione L. Clinton

Industrial Division, U. S. Children's Bureau

During the 1943 harvest season the Children's Bureau observed farm-work programs for inexperienced boys and girls in eight States and reviewed reports from almost every section of the country. Believing that a successful emergency farm program must not only give the farmers efficient help but must also give the young people a worth-while experience, it found that some programs were a success from the point of view of all concerned—farmers, young people, parents, and community—and that others were not. The purpose of the survey was to discover what made for success or failure, how specific problems were worked out, what improvements in standards and procedures took place, and what new trends were appearing. Another purpose was to reexamine the recommendations made in "Guides to Successful Employment of Nonfarm Youth in Wartime Agriculture," [1] prepared on the basis of experience in 1942, and see in what respects they had proved helpful, how they could be improved and strengthened, and what additions might need to be made.

Extensive surveys were made in California, New York, Oregon, and Washington, and less extensive observations in Maine, Wisconsin, New Jersey, and Colorado. Information was also obtained through interviews with State officials by the regional child-labor consultants of the Children's Bureau, and from reports prepared by directors of various Victory Farm Volunteers programs.

As in 1942, the largest number of nonfarm young people worked on day-haul programs where they lived at home and went out to work by the day; others lived in work camps and worked out of these. Work camps were used in areas where crops were grown that require many hands for harvesting; for example, along the west and east coasts. Throughout the country a considerably smaller number of young people lived in farm homes and helped to do general farm work. In Minnesota about half of the 20,000 youngsters placed under the official program had this arrangement, and so did most of those brought into Vermont. New York used all three plans.

Need for Young Workers in 1943

Plans to recruit city boys and girls for work on farms should not be made until the official agencies have found that there will not be enough older workers available and that there is need for the particular type of project under consideration.[2]

Agricultural workers were drawn in 1943 from many different sources—deferred farm workers, women, nationals of Mexico, the Bahamas, and Jamaica, war prisoners, evacuated Americans of Japanese heritage, and farmers transported from areas where they were underemployed. Migrants who almost disappeared in 1942 reappeared in 1943 in considerable numbers, partly as a result of the allotment of gasoline to farm workers for transportation to areas where their work was needed. Some 1,500,000 workers were placed in farm work through official channels in 1943. Of these, 400,000 were under 18 years of age. It is the conditions under which these 400,000 youngsters lived, worked, and were carried back and forth in which the Children's Bureau is primarily interested.

[1] U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau Publication 290, Washington, 1943. Prepared in consultation with the U. S. Department of Agriculture, the Office of Education, the Office of Civilian Defense, and the War Manpower Commission.

[2] This and other introductory statements in italics are based on the recommendations made in "Guides to Successful Employment of Nonfarm Youth in Wartime Agriculture."

The Bureau obtained evidence from many sections of the country that, contrary to expectations and except in certain crops and at certain times, there was less need for youngsters as agricultural workers than in 1942. Even where other sources of labor were available, however, youngsters were sometimes recruited as a labor reserve.

The results of recruitment without regard to need were reflected in the turning away of many young people who reported for work, or in their being given undesirable fields or orchards for picking.

The program director in a western city said that each day for a month there was an oversupply of 25 to 100 youngsters who appeared at the assembly point for assignment to day hauls. In a nearby city 100 groups of 30 to 40 children each were recruited and organized for day hauls but work was found for only 75 groups. In one case, in an area having many grape orchards, crews of young workers were placed in the poorer vineyards because regular farm laborers refused to work there.

In many areas young people were assembled in work camps and were employed only irregularly when older workers became available. Youngsters found themselves unable to earn enough to pay their board, lodging, and other costs.

According to newspaper reports, 35 boys in a work camp established at the farmers' request were employed only 4 days of the 19 they were in camp. The camp was finally disbanded and the boys sent home. The director said, "The farmers cry for help and then do not use it when it is made available."

In an eastern State 32 high-school girls in a work camp saved the bean crop, but Jamaican workers were then imported into the area and many of the farmers no longer employed the girls. At one time only 5 girls were working and the camp director said the others were running into debt for their room and board, which cost them $10 a week. Before the camp was set up the farmers had signed an agreement to employ 75 percent of the girls steadily, but they ignored the agreement.

In areas where there was a real labor shortage, on the other hand, youngsters gave invaluable services in saving the crops.

In one such program 700 boys 14 years of age and over were employed regularly and were asked to remain longer than had been originally planned.

Obviously youngsters should not be recruited for agricultural work unless there is need for their labor and should not be sent out until farms where they are to be placed have been checked and it is ascertained that wages and picking and working conditions are acceptable and are such that young workers can earn a reasonable return for their work.[3]

[3] For suggestions on such checking see "Supervised Student Labor on Farms," by Fred K. Spooner and J. W. Halleen. *The Child*, Vol. 8, No. 1 (July 1943), pp. 3–7. Reprints of this article may be had free by writing to the Children's Bureau.

Work camps should not be established until the need for the work of campers is determined, and unless farmers who expect to obtain labor from the camps will guarantee sufficient work so that at least enough can be earned by each youngster to pay his living costs. An agreement to supply enough work for a return at least sufficient to cover the cost of subsistence should be put into writing, and should be carefully followed.

Supervision of Work

When inexperienced young workers are employed in numbers, as they usually are for harvesting work, they should be placed in groups, each of which is under the charge of a leader.

The importance of the job of the work leader or supervisor as basic to the success of youth farm-labor programs was widely recognized[4] and in some sections where it was planned to employ young people in agriculture, early efforts to recruit and train work leaders were made.

It was reported that when good leadership was provided programs were more satisfactory to the young people and the farmers. Where this was lacking children were reported to be learning poor work habits and even exhibiting tendencies toward delinquent behavior.

In an eastern State it was reported that youngsters in an unsupervised camp "shot craps, played poker, carried on 'foraging and stealing parties.' One group 'pestered a local tavern keeper by selling him bottles stolen from his back porch.'"

Where careful supervision was provided, property destruction was negligible and the risk of accidents minimized. Good supervision also increased production and made it more worth while for the youngsters to continue working.

The director of one successful program, where supervisors were always sent out with crews of youngsters, reported that there were no incidents of destruction on any bus or farm and no accidents.

Of one group where the work supervisor kept careful count of production, weighed each basket as it was filled, and punched a production card each worker carried for the amount earned, the farmer said that his neighbors, who thought the plan to use youngsters wouldn't work, "drop in occasionally, see the results, and ask how we do it. Well, the first thing is to realize this labor is entirely different. These boys are real workers, once they are provided with proper supervi-

[4] A bulletin to supplement the section on work supervision in "Guides to Successful Employment of Nonfarm Youth in Wartime Agriculture," giving a detailed discussion of the work leader, his job, his qualifications, his training, and how he is recruited, is being prepared by the Children's Bureau. This is based on material planned by a group called together by the Children's Bureau on June 5, 1943, as a result of the recommendation of the May 1943 meeting of the Subcommittee on Young Workers in Wartime Agriculture of the General Advisory Committee on Protection of Young Workers. This bulletin is tentatively entitled, "Work Leaders for Nonfarm Youth Employed in Groups in Agricultural Programs."

sion. That doesn't mean the iron hand. It means someone who knows boys and knows how to get along with them. It also takes imagination on the farmer's part to make their work enjoyable."

It sometimes happened, however, that the supervisor did not stay with the program, throughout the season.

In one community, although work leaders were carefully recruited and trained, they dropped out after the first week because of the difficulty of the job; hours of work and length of time for transportation added up to a very long day. Transportation was in large double-tiered busses with only one supervisor to each busload of children. The wages of the supervisors were paid on the basis of a percentage of the amount picked by each youngster. One supervisor when he quit said, "This is too much for me."

One local committee worked out the following suggestions on supervision for the youth farm-labor program in the community:

The supervisor should not be required to oversee too large a group. Under one supervisor, groups of 15 students in tree crops, and 30 to 50 in field crops seem to work best.

All complaints should be made to the supervisor and not to any member of the crew. The supervisor must have full control on the job.

The rate of pay for the supervisor should be adequate and on the liberal side. Much better results can be achieved if the supervisor feels that his efforts are appreciated and he is willingly paid.

Age Limitations

Recruitment should be limited to boys and girls 14 years of age or over for work on day-haul programs; 16 years or over when the young workers live in farm homes or in work camps, except that in camps conducted by recognized youth-serving agencies the minimum may be 14 years.

In general, national agencies have recommended or recognized as desirable a minimum age of at least 14 years for the employment of nonfarm youngsters in agricultural work. In many State and local programs, particularly where there had been experience with the younger workers in 1942, plans were made for a 14-year minimum age. However, in some States and some localities it was planned to include children under 14 years on day hauls or even in work camps. In several places a most undesirable tendency was noted to use very young children under almost uncontrolled working conditions, even though their employment was not necessary. Under one State plan children from the fifth grade up were registered for work on farms on the ground that "the work was good for them."

The director of a camp program for youngsters from 12 years of age who worked 6 hours a day, said, "The 12- and 13-year-olds are too young, much too young."

In one camp where boys were assigned to do general farm work, such as haying, a boy of 13 was seen at midday sleeping soundly in a hot, sunny, noisy dormitory. It was said he was "not ill, just exhausted."

One program director reported that the farm work camps where the boys of 14 and 15 years lived in central living quarters and went out each day to farmers in the community for work at truck or fruit farms, "offer many problems. The theory that younger boys are able to do this harvest work since it is largely one operation does not work out in practice. While the work requires little skill, it is often hard and always monotonous. Picking berries or string beans for an entire day, even though it is only an 8-hour day and the living conditions are the best, often proves more than young boys, unaccustomed to sustained manual work, can stand."

At general farm work where the youngster lives in the farmer's home, it has been found that immaturity in relation to the responsibilities of the job and the new environment is a major cause of failing on the job and leaving the farm.

A director of a program said of boys placed in farm homes: "The main reason for the large number of failures this year is, in my opinion, the fact that with fewer boys volunteering and a larger demand, younger boys and boys less qualified were sent to the farms. With some notable exceptions, boys of 14 and 15 did not do so well as the boys of 16 and 17. Although only those of the younger boys were placed who were strong physically and showed enthusiasm for the work, many of them lacked the stamina for sustained work and the social maturity to adapt themselves to farm life."

Experience during 1942 and 1943 confirmed the belief that to protect the youngsters and to get the best results only boys and girls sufficiently mature and well-developed physically should be recruited. Young people should not be placed where they will live in farm homes and do general farm work unless they are at least 16 years old. Boys and girls working on day-haul programs or living in work camps run by recognized youth-serving agencies should be at least 14 years old.

Length of the Workday

Hours of actual work including rest periods should be not more than 8 a day for 16- and 17-year-olds, and preferably not more than 6 a day for 14- and 15-year-olds.

In many places in 1943, programs for young workers were planned so as to limit hours of actual work to 8 a day. It was reported that even when the actual working hours were limited to 8 a day, the total workday was often very much longer. Sometimes these long hours were brought about through careless planning: sometimes they were the result of the long distances traveled to reach the fields.

In a western community children were recruited without discrimination in regard to age, physical condition, and parent's consent; were loaded into trucks at 5:30 in the morning, and were sent 50 miles on farmers' trucks to work and often did not return until after 8:30. Very young children were sent. Farmers themselves finally put a stop to transporting these young children such long distances and subjecting them to these long hours, by refusing to call for them.

A report of a program with 8 hours a day of actual work in one western State reads: "The length of the day was entirely too long. Many farmers would leave the dispatching point at 6:30 in the morning and not return until 6:30 in the evening. (In a few cases farmers did not return workers until 8 p. m.) Some of the farmers commented that not much work was done after 2 p. m."

Where children were protected by reasonably short working hours, production was higher, hourly earnings were greater, turnover among young workers was lower, and supervisors were more readily available. When the hours of actual work are being set, the distance to the field, the age of the worker, and the type of work to be done should be taken into consideration. Eight hours of actual work may not be too long where the distance traveled is so short that the entire workday, including hours of actual work, lunch, and transportation, does not exceed the 10-hour limit recommended by the War Manpower Commission.[5] When transportation requires more time, hours of actual work should be shortened accordingly.

Earnings

Wage rates—whether piece or hourly—should be the same as those paid to older beginning workers for the same type and amount of work.

In general, young workers were paid on a piece-rate basis wherever the kind of work they were doing made this practicable; in most areas they were paid at prevailing rates. Where young people were paid on an hourly, daily, or monthly basis, their wage rates were usually lower than those of experienced workers.

Even when youngsters were paid prevailing piece rates, their earnings frequently were too low to pay for shelter and board, which cost from 70 cents a day up to $10 a week. Sometimes this occurred because youngsters were employed in crops for which inadequate wages were paid and to which experienced workers were not attracted.

In a western community it was reported that "one of the reasons for being compelled to use such young workers was the low wage scale."

Some groups of youngsters were assigned to fields with bad picking conditions and this led to low earnings.

In one camp in an eastern State 27 girls who worked for 17 days earned only $651.79, or an average of $1.42 a day each. Together they paid $614.74 for board. Thus for the entire period they had only $37.05 to be divided, or only 8 cents a day per girl. This came about because one farmer's field offered such poor picking that even the best pickers could not produce enough to pay their board. The girls decided to split the losses.

Youngsters should not be required to take a loss on bad fields, irregular employment, or other such conditions to which they may be exposed. In order to guarantee young workers at least a subsistence wage an adjustment of rates, taking these special conditions into consideration, may sometimes have to be made. Work camps should not be established unless farmers agree in writing to guarantee the young workers a return sufficient to cover their living expenses.

Safety and Insurance

Protection against accidents should be assured through safe work practices and farm equipment, safe transportation, safety training, and provisions for first aid and medical care. Insurance against injuries on the job should be covered by workmen's compensation insurance wherever possible and during transportation by liability insurance.

Obtaining adequate insurance coverage for injuries occurring on the job and during transportation, paid for by the farmers, is one of the most difficult problems in the programs to employ young people in agriculture. There are reports from various sections of the country that children employed as farm workers have been injured and that often no responsibility for their care was taken by the farmer.

In an eastern State a boy's foot was so badly bruised in the course of his employment that he was unable to work, infection set in, his foot had to be lanced, and he was confined to his bed for some time. The farmer had made no provision for insurance protection and permitted the boy to be without medical care for over a week after the accident. The mother in this case wrote several Government departments expressing dismay that Government agencies, school officials, and others would participate in a program and give it approval when such an important feature as protection for minors against injury and illness was not provided.

In Vermont during 1943 farmers were required, before young workers were placed on their farms, to cover these employees under workmen's compensation or to buy an insurance policy, arranged for by the State extension service, providing $5,000 for injuries to one person in one accident, and $10,000 for more

[5] Policy on Employment of Youth Under 18 Years of Age. A statement issued by the War Manpower Commission, January 30, 1943. U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, Washington, 1943.

than one person in one accident, and up to $500 for medical aid, including hospitalization.

A personal accident policy was arranged for by the United States Department of Agriculture. This could be purchased at a low rate by young people employed in agricultural programs when the community plan did not require the employer to carry insurance, or when the farmers refused to provide coverage. Figures on the number of policies purchased are not available, but State and local officials in some areas stated that very few policies had been bought.

Legislation in a few States and under certain conditions requires that certain farmers must take workmen's compensation insurance or prove that they are able to pay the benefits specified in the law in case of injury to one of their workers. During 1943 minimum premiums which farmers must pay to obtain this coverage were reduced in most States for the duration of the war, and it should be practicable for many farmers to cover young workers by this insurance in 1944. Whenever it is not feasible for farmers to obtain workmen's compensation insurance, some other form of insurance protecting the young workers should be provided and paid for by the farmer.

Some improvement over 1942 conditions in the safety of farmers' trucks sent to call for youngsters was noted in several places, although in other sections, trucks with no tail gates or seats were still in use.

In one community trucks picking up young people for day hauls had solid sides, tail gates, and seats. Youngsters used steps to mount the trucks, and did so under the supervision of a dispatcher. Overcrowding was not permitted. A great deal of education on safe transportation had gone into this program. A special meeting had been held, and a police inspector and others had spoken to the youngsters and the farmers. The school coordinator pointed out what improvements were needed to each farmer whose truck was not in acceptable condition.

Sanitary Conditions

Adequate drinking water from approved sources and sanitary toilet and washing facilities should be available at work.

In several States water supply and toilet facilities furnished youngsters working in organized programs seemed to have been improved since 1942. On many farms drinking water was kept cool in kegs and was served from a spigot. Youngsters were expected to furnish their own cups.

In some States, however, no improvement in sanitary conditions was noted. In many fields a common dipper in a pail of drinking water was in use and there were no toilet facilities. School people said they felt this was one of the strongest reasons why parents objected to their children working on farms. One school official took the position that until farmers provided certain facilities the schools should not encourage youngsters to work on the farms. He said he was formerly a farmer and knew it would not be impossible to (1) set up privies in or near the fields, (2) provide pure drinking water and individual cups, (3) provide washing facilities, and (4) put up a canvas or other roof to provide shade for youngsters to eat their lunches.

Administration of the Program

Since April 1943, when a change was made in the administration of farm-labor recruitment and placement, the extension service of the college of agriculture in each State has been assigned the responsibility for the development and operation of the farm-labor program through the county extension agents. Funds for this purpose have been made available by Congress through the War Food Administration. The Federal Extension Service and the United States Office of Education worked out an arrangement whereby schools would help in the recruitment and training of young people. In most States a youth farm-labor or Victory Farm Volunteers program has been set up in the extension service with special personnel.

Agreements were made in 29 States whereby the extension services delegated some degree of responsibility for certain aspects of the programs to the United States Employment Service, which had previously been responsible for recruitment and placement of farm labor. Under the agreements, plans for the duties and responsibilities of each agency varied from State to State and in the local communities within some States.

Several States in 1943 put into effect legislation providing funds for the administration of the farm-labor program. In California the extension service and the State Farm Production Council, the agency set up by 1943 legislation, cooperated closely in the administration of the program, each agency assuming responsibility for certain aspects. In New York the various governmental agencies that participated in the operation of the 1942 program, such as the United States Employment Service, the extension service, and the department of education merged their responsibilities in the Farm Manpower Service, which grew out of the War Manpower regional committee appointed by the Governor late in 1942. In 1943 the youth farm-labor program with a $100,000 State appropriation was administered through the New York

Farm Cadet Victory Corps, headed by a school official working under the direction of the Farm Manpower Service.

In the State of Washington, under the agreement between the extension service and the United States Employment Service, the extension service delegated the placement function to the United States Employment Service, but retained the responsibility for the issuance of publicity and for working with farmers. Arrangements as to which agency carried out certain functions varied, however, in local areas.

Community Planning

Policies governing programs should be planned by State and local committees broadly representative of interested groups and organizations including those responsible for operating the farm-labor program, farmers, parents, schools, youth-serving agencies, and health, welfare, church, labor, and other community groups.

In 1943 as in 1942, planning committees in some sections of the country continued to be composed primarily of farm groups and to serve only in an advisory capacity to the agencies operating programs. Such committees developed policies on the basis of farm needs and often were not representative of the interest of the young people, the parents, and the community.

However, in some sections of the country the interest and participation of State and local committees in planning for policies concerning the recruitment and placement of boys and girls in harvesting operations showed progress.

This progress was indicated by the inclusion on committees of representation from many different groups; in the importance placed on early planning; and in emphasis on standards for the protection of young workers.

The State of Washington is a good illustration of the progress made in planning in 1943, and of the problems still to be solved in this kind of community endeavor. In 1942 many children had been employed in harvesting operations, but State planning was not done to any extent. In 1943, however, a representative committee on children in agriculture, organized as a subcommittee of the Committee on Children in Wartime, of the State Defense Council, started work early in the year to establish standards and conditions for the recruitment and employment of young workers. The governor appointed an emergency farm-labor committee to consider all aspects of the farm-labor problem. These committees worked together on the employment of young people in agriculture, and made similar recommendations on standards for this employment. Many of the agencies represented on the committee on children in agriculture issued bulletins on special aspects of the youth farm-labor program. In several cities near agricultural areas needing many seasonal workers local committees on children in agriculture were set up.

But the committees found that plans and recommendations were not enough to make the program a success. Recommended standards were in many cases not carried through. There was confusion about legislative standards and other information affecting the program. Carefully trained supervisors in one locality worked only during the first week of the season, and then dropped out.

At the end of the 1943 season the Washington State committee on children in agriculture and representatives of some other groups met and issued the following suggestions concerning the responsibilities of the committee for the 1944 program: (1) The administration of the farm-labor program should be coordinated and centralized. The committee should make definite suggestions to the central administrative agency on how the program should be administered in 1944. (2) Material on all aspects of the program including employment practices, regulations for release from school, functions of health and welfare departments and their relation to the program, information on farm-labor supply, and so forth, should be incorporated in one publication prepared under the direction of the committee and distributed by it. (3) Standards for age of workers, hours, and work leadership should be raised.

Experience with community participation in developing standards for the employment of boys and girls and procedures for making them effective indicate that a broadly representative committee made up of all groups interested in young people, and including membership from the agencies administering the program, offers the greatest value to all concerned.

Since community committees have proved their effectiveness in programs to employ young workers in agriculture, it may be desirable for State and local groups to consider the establishment of one committee to develop standards and advise on all types of youth employment. This would (1) permit the matching of available youngsters to jobs suited to their individual capacities and interests, and to labor needs and work opportunities in each area, (2) offer an opportunity to consider the suitability of certain types of jobs, and (3) discourage conflict in recruitment for different industries and occupations.

Additional Safeguards Needed

Experience during 1943 showed that on the whole young people had worth-while experiences and farmers obtained satisfactory results from youth farm-work programs where older boys and girls were recruited: where recruitment was based on a real need for their work; and where young workers were employed under living and working conditions that contributed to their educational growth and welfare. There is evidence that wherever community programs followed the practices presented in "Guides to Successful Employment of Nonfarm Youth in Wartime Agriculture" results were better for all concerned than where children were employed under uncontrolled conditions.

However, even where programs were thus planned to adjust employment practices to the age and needs of the young workers, problems emerged for which no solution had been presented at the beginning of the 1943 season.

The most outstanding need that emerged was that for a guarantee of reasonable monetary return to the young workers. Farms should be visited to ascertain before placement that wage rates, work available, and the facilities to do the work are such that satisfactory earnings will result. For the protection of young workers living in work camps, in addition, a guarantee for the season should be obtained from the farmers in writing.

Another need was for a shorter over-all workday. In order to cut the time spent away from home to a reasonable length it may be necessary to curtail the hours of actual work where youngsters are transported long distances.

There is also a need for broadening the aims of planning committees. A community committee on the employment of young people in agriculture should have representation from all interested groups and agencies and should provide a basis for coordinating all efforts in the community in this field. It should develop standards for recruitment and employment and recommend administrative techniques and procedures. Finally, to make its planning effective, it must carry its interest over into the period of operation of the program.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

Employment Standards for Minors Under 18 Employed in the Army Service Forces of the War Department

A significant step looking to the protection of young workers in Federal employment is the recent order by Lt. Gen. Brehon Somervell, Commanding General of the Army Service Forces of the War Department, establishing standards for the employment of minors under 18 years of age in the Army Service Forces. This order is applicable in all installations of the Army Service Forces, and therefore it will cover most of the young workers employed by the War Department, as the Army Service Forces include the branches of that Department in which most civilian employment occurs; that is, the Ordnance Department, the Signal Corps, the Office of the Surgeon General, the Corps of Engineers, the Transportation Corps, the Quartermaster Corps, the Chemical Warfare Service, and the nine Service Commands.

This action by the Army Service Forces is of special importance, as neither Federal nor State child-labor standards legally apply to Federal employment. The United States is expressly exempted from coverage of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 and is not legally subject to the requirements of State child-labor laws, although Federal agencies in some cases have voluntarily adhered to the standards set up by State law for the employment of minors. For instance, in 1942 the War Department issued instructions to its staff to comply as far as practicable with local laws in assigning work to employees who are minors.

War conditions have served to point up this gap in coverage of child-labor protection and also the need for the establishment of basic standards to govern the employment of young workers by Federal agencies. In general, this absence of coverage was not so apparent before the war because the minimum age at that time for entrance to Federal employment, usually as high as 18, ruled out the youngest group of workers to whom protective child-labor measures usually apply. However, even before the attack on Pearl Harbor, the employment of young

workers without regard to State child-labor standards was a matter of growing concern to school and labor officials in certain localities.

As Federal areas of employment expanded with the increase in war production and military activities, critical labor shortages developed and Federal recruitment began to reach into the reservoir of youth under military age who, had they been entering private employment, would usually have been subject to legal protection under child-labor laws. In many areas it has become increasingly difficult to maintain respect for child-labor standards in private employment. Young persons who could not legally enter such employment and were refused certificates would often obtain jobs in Federally operated establishments in the same community. For instance, only recently a school superintendent in a midwestern city, who is responsible for the issuance of employment and age certificates in that locality, reported to a representative of the United States Department of Labor that he had difficulty in explaining to private employers the need for compliance with child-labor law requirements when Federal agencies were free from such restrictions.

The policies set up by the Army Service Forces to direct the practice of its installations in the employment of young workers were formulated by the Industrial Personnel Division, Army Service Forces, of which James P. Mitchell is director. They point out that, although critical labor shortages in many areas have made it desirable to employ minors under 18, the health and the educational preparation of the minors involved must be the paramount consideration in such employment, regardless of the need for labor. The standards apply to both full-time and part-time employment. They accord in general with the policies for youth employment previously formulated by the War Manpower Commission, the Children's Bureau, and the Office of Education.[1] Every effort is to be made to avoid recruitment for full-time work of minors under 18 years of age who have not finished high-school training, and students under 18 may be employed part time, but only if adult labor is unavailable for the jobs in question. Recruitment and employment of students under 18 for part-time work should have the specific approval of the appropriate public-school authorities and of the United States Civil Service Commission or the United States Employment Service.

The employment standards established relate to minimum age, suitability of occupations, certificates of age and parental consent, hours of labor, health safeguards, wages, and adherence to State laws. The minimum-age standards are in substantial accord with the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

A summary of the standards set by the Army Service Forces follows:

Minimum age.—A 16-year minimum age is established for any employment in an Army Service Forces installation.

Suitability of occupations.—Determination as to whether an occupation is suitable for minors under 18 will be made by the medical officer upon request of the personnel officer. The latter officer is directed to make a survey of occupations and, in cooperation with the United States Civil Service Commission or the United States Employment Service and the school authorities, determine those in which students 16 and 17 years of age may be used.

Students under 18 will not be used for work in: Hazardous occupations prohibited for minors under 18 years of age under the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938; hazardous occupations prohibited for minors under 18 by the law of the State in which the installation is located; in general, occupations that are in any way dangerous or unusually strenuous. [The order here refers to the advisory standards given in the series of leaflets, "Which Jobs for Young Workers?" published by the Children's Bureau.]

Occupations mentioned as examples of appropriate work for minors under 18 are checking, shipping where heavy lifting is not involved, clerical work, messenger service, and small-parts assembly.

Certificates of age and parental consent.—The consent of the minor's parent and a certificate of age are required as a condition of employment of each minor under 18.

Hours for full-time employment.—Maximum hours of work for minors under 18 are restricted to 8 hours a day, 48 hours a week, and 6 days a week, except as temporary deviations from this standard may be necessary to meet a special emergency.

Hours for part-time employment.—For youth under 18 attending school, the daily hours of work are to be limited to not more than 4 on school days and 8 on Saturdays, or 28 hours per week. Combined hours of school sessions and work will not exceed 9 a day; transportation factors should be taken into account so that the total hours spent in school, at work, and in transportation shall not exceed 10 a day.

Evening employment for such youth shall not extend beyond 10 p. m.; the closing hour should usually be earlier. At least 9 night hours should be free from employment. Adequate provision should be made for the safety and welfare of boys and girls who work on an evening shift.

Students shall not be used for work that interferes with their regular or adjusted school programs.

Health safeguards.—Where a number of students or other young workers under 18 are employed, the installation has the responsibility of providing a satisfactory health program and of maintaining as healthful and safe a working environment as possible. Special care should be taken to allow adequate rest and meal periods.

[1] *Policy on Employment of Youth Under 18 Years of Age*, a statement issued by the War Manpower Commission, January 30, 1943. *Statement of Policies and Standards Governing the Nonagricultural Employment of In-School Urban Youth Under 18 Years of Age*, issued jointly by the War Manpower Commission; U. S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency; Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor. Washington, 1943.

Wages.—Wages for minor workers under 18, whether full time or part time, will be determined as for adults doing similar work.

Adherence to State laws.—Army Service Forces installations will conform to child-labor and school-attendance laws of State governments having jurisdiction over the respective areas in which the installations are located.

The forward-looking action of the Army Service Forces in providing adequate labor standards for these young workers indicates an understanding of the essential relationship between good labor standards and production. By voluntarily incorporating State child-labor and school-attendance laws in their employment practice the Army Service Forces will give youth in their employ the same minimum protection that is given to youth in comparable private employment. Such acceptance of State standards will do much to promote good relationships between the Army Service Forces installations and the communities in which they are located. Of course it does not mean that State or Federal labor departments will have authority to inspect the Federal installations. The cooperation of local employment certificate-issuing officials in issuing the required certificates of age for young persons going to work in these installations will do much to help make the standards effective.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

Child-Labor Manifesto

Preparing for action to deal with serious wartime child-labor problems, 34 leaders concerned with industrial, educational, and health problems affecting children and young people, including representatives from 27 national organizations, have joined in issuing a "Child-Labor Manifesto." This manifesto expresses the conviction that demands for war production and essential civilian services can be met without exploiting children. It calls upon all forces in the community—the home, the school, the church, industry and commerce, labor, and social and civic agencies—to unite in action to protect children and youth through support and promotion of employment safeguards for children and youth.

The signers of the manifesto are working together for wide distribution of this statement by national organizations to their affiliated local groups. The continuing committee of the conference group that launched this project, has prepared for use with the manifesto in this Nation-wide program, a leaflet, "Community Action on Child Labor," which gives specific suggestions for activities by local organizations. This includes suggestions on how to organize a local advisory council on child labor; organize a stay-in-school campaign; initiate action to extend vocational-counseling services in the schools; conduct a survey of the work children are doing outside school hours; consider the need for school-work projects; reduce illegal employment; work on special phases of child labor; check on health examinations for employment; and arrange discussion groups for employed young people.

Copies of the manifesto and the leaflet are available in quantities from the National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, N. Y.

BOOK NOTE

ORGANIZATION OF STUDENT HARVEST LABOR AND STANDARDS FOR STUDENT HARVEST CAMPS, compiled by California State Department of Education, May 1943. Issued by California State Farm Production Council, Sacramento, 1943. 45 pp.

The State Farm Production Council of California, seeing a need for extensive employment of students for harvesting the California crops, many of them in harvest camps, requested the State department of education to compile a bulletin establishing standards and offering suggestions for the conduct of such camps. This booklet was accordingly prepared by that department, with the assistance of other agencies charged with responsibility of enforcing laws applicable to this field. In issuing it, the council stated: "It is expected that all camps housing students of school age and adult groups from the cities will operate in such a manner as to conform with these standards as established."

The comprehensive approach to the problem of employment of young workers in agriculture and its detailed suggestions should make this bulletin very useful to groups responsible for or contributing to such programs. Of particular interest are the suggestions on the form and content of agreements to be made, specifying mutual responsibilities between employers and operators of camps, between the school district and employers, and between schools and other agencies using school facilities to house camps. Particularly helpful detail is given in the presentation of duties and qualifications of camp directors and work supervisors. In addition, the bulletin gives information on Federal and California State legal requirements affecting the school attendance of minors and the employment of minors in agriculture, and presents in concise form much valuable advice with regard to working conditions and standards for the operation of camps.

• SAFEGUARDING THE HEALTH OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN •

Cooperative Relationships Between State Vocational-Rehabilitation Services and Crippled Children's Services

By A. L. Van Horn, M. D.

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Vocational-rehabilitation services in all the States will be expanded under the provisions of the Barden-LaFollette Vocational Rehabilitation Act, approved July 6, 1943, amending the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1920. To administer this expanded Federal-State civilian-rehabilitation program a new Office of Vocational Rehabilitation has been established in the Federal Security Agency. The Director is Michael J. Shortley.

This new legislation is planned to meet the special wartime need for providing for the vocational rehabilitation of persons injured in nonmilitary war services. War-disabled civilians covered by this provision include those incapacitated while serving without pay in the Aircraft Warning Service, the Civil Air Patrol, or in other protective services as a member of the United States Citizens Defense Corps; or as registered trainees taking training for such protective services; or as officers or members of the crew of a vessel owned or chartered by the United States Maritime Commission or the War Shipping Administration.

It has been pointed out by Paul V. McNutt, Federal Security Administrator, that the expansion of the Federal-State vocational-rehabilitation program will contribute to the war effort by facilitating reemployment of the physically handicapped through provisions for physical restoration where possible and for training necessary for employment. Previously the program did not provide for remedial treatment, though in many cases relatively simple surgery would materially decrease the physical handicap or even remove or fully compensate for it. The new law makes Federal money available for this purpose as well as for job training. It is estimated that more than 2 million cases currently need the attention of State rehabilitation services. The placement of handicapped wage earners in useful employment for self-support is not only an essential humanitarian service but also a conservation measure of inestimable value and one which becomes increasingly important under war conditions.

Included among the more than 2 million cases mentioned in the preceding paragraph are several thousand physically handicapped youths 16 to 21 years of age. According to information received from State agencies administering services for crippled children there have been 31,993 crippled youths referred to State vocational-rehabilitation agencies for service during the fiscal years 1937 to 1942, inclusive; of this number 2,483 have been fully rehabilitated. It is apparent that there are still many crippled youths of employable age who are in need of vocational training and rehabilitation.

In a communication dated January 26, 1942, from the Children's Bureau to all State crippled children's agencies the following recommendations were made:

1. That State agencies administering services for crippled children and State vocational-rehabilitation agencies develop methods of joint planning for considering the problems of individual physically handicapped children and the action to be taken with special reference to physical restoration, social adjustment, vocational guidance, vocational education, and placement in industry. It is considered that such joint planning is preferable to the practice frequently followed of routine referral of physically handicapped children of employable age to rehabilitation agencies.

2. That State agencies administering services for crippled children, and State vocational-rehabilitation agencies, develop plans for the periodic review of cases of children with physical handicaps who are under care in order to con-

sider whether all children who can benefit from training for employment have been referred to the State vocational-rehabilitation service; to evaluate the correlation of the services provided by both agencies to individual children; and to work out methods for improving such services to meet the needs of individual crippled children.

3. That State agencies administering services for crippled children and State vocational-rehabilitation agencies have a mutual understanding of their respective services and cooperative policies, preferably in the form of a written memorandum prepared jointly, which will include provision for free exchange of information regarding any physically handicapped person under 21 years of age, attendance of rehabilitation workers at diagnostic clinics held for crippled children, and provision for regular and planned case-study conferences between representatives of such agencies in developing plans for individual children.

4. That special consideration be given by State agencies to problems concerned with the physical restoration and vocational rehabilitation of youths under 21 years of age who may be rejected for general military service because of a physical handicap or honorably discharged from the armed forces with a physically handicapping condition resulting from injury, accident, or disease.

(Since transmittal of this communication provisions have been made through Federal legislation for the physical restoration and rehabilitation by the Veterans Administration of discharged veterans of the armed forces who have service-connected handicaps.)

Under the Barden-LaFollette Act the expanded State rehabilitation services may provide medical and hospital care for eligible individuals of employable age, some of whom will be under 21 years of age. The development of such services for crippled youths in this age group would duplicate in large measure the services already available in every State and Territory under the State crippled children's services. Accordingly, the Federal Office of Vocational Rehabilitation and the Division of Health Services of the Children's Bureau have agreed on certain principles and policies which will avoid such duplication of services. These principles and policies have been set forth in joint memoranda from the Children's Bureau and the Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, directed to all State crippled children's agencies and State vocational-rehabilitation agencies. In general, they refer to:

1. The importance of conferences between State officials responsible for the administration of these respective services in order that there can be a mutual understanding and agreement between the two services regarding policies and procedures which will serve the best interests of crippled children of employable age;

2. Referral by the State vocational-rehabilitation service to the crippled children's agency of patients under 21 years of age who have a crippling condition for which services may be provided under the crippled children's program;

3. Acceptance by the State crippled children's agencies of patients under 21 years of age referred to them by the vocational-rehabilitation services;

4. Exchange of information between the two agencies of all relevant information necessary for providing the needed services to any individual eligible for care under the respective programs;

5. Referral by the crippled children's agency to the State vocational-rehabilitation service of crippled youths of employable age who may be eligible for vocational training and preparation for remunerative employment;

6. Cooperation between the two State services in the development of the new medical-care features under the State vocational-rehabilitation services.

Never before has there been such an opportunity for providing services for the physically handicapped as exists under our present legislation. No crippled child in any State or Territory need be denied the necessary services which are required to bring about the greatest possible physical restoration and correction of his crippling condition. Likewise, under the new Barden-LaFollette Act corrective medical services and hospital care may now be provided for individuals of employable age having handicapping conditions, and they may also be trained in an occupation for which they are suited and may be prepared for remunerative employment. Under the United States Employment Service special consideration is given to the placement of physically handicapped persons in industry. There is still much to be done, but the progress that has been made since 1935 in the development of services for the physically handicapped is encouraging and we can look forward with greater confidence to the future development of a comprehensive plan of services that will meet more adequately their mental, physical, and social needs.

Influence of Nutrition During Pregnancy Upon the Condition of the Infant at Birth

Further evidence that the diet of the mother during pregnancy influences the condition of her infant has been published in the Journal of Nutrition in another paper in the series, Nutrition Studies During Pregnancy, by Bertha S. Burke and others.[1] Two of these papers have been already noted in *The Child* (September 1943 and January 1944).

Findings such as those in this report will undoubtedly stimulate interest in the subject of diet during the gestation period. Such interest, except as it relates to excessive weight gain in the mother, says the report, has been relatively slow to develop, because the medical profession has not been convinced that diet during pregnancy occupies a place of great importance in regard to either the mother or her offspring. It is generally agreed, of course, that heredity, nutrition, activity, and disease are the principal factors that determine the course of physical growth and development. Although the relative importance of each has not been established, the data presented in this study lend additional support to the conclusion that health throughout life is primarily dependent upon food and nutrition. It is also recognized that although in the earliest part of pregnancy the ovum carries some nutrient material within itself it is largely dependent upon the mother for the material from which it is to grow and develop. The conclusions that the authors present are the same as the first three presented in the more comprehensive report, as noted in *The Child* for September 1943.

[1] Burke, Bertha S., Virginia A. Beal, Samuel B. Kirkwood, and Harold C. Stuart: The Influence of Nutrition During Pregnancy Upon the Condition of the Infant at Birth. Journal of Nutrition, vol. 26, pp. 569–583 (December 1943). Single copies of reprints of this paper may be obtained without charge by writing to the Children's Bureau.

BOOK NOTES

When Your Baby Is Coming, by Dr. Charles Hill. Prepared for the Ministry of Health by the Ministry of Education. His Majesty's Stationery Office, London, 1943. 15 pp. Price 3d. net.

"I believe in more children, in the proper feeding and rearing of children—a job which starts with the care of the expectant mother," says Dr. Charles Hill, whose "Kitchen Front" radio talks have been reprinted by Great Britain's Ministry of Information in a series of booklets that are fundamentally sound and are written in a simple, familiar style. The most recent of the series is "When Your Baby Is Coming." Others are "Your Baby's Food in Wartime," "Wartime Food for Growing Children," and "Wise Eating in Wartime."

Infant and Child in the Culture of Today, by Arnold Gesell, M. D., Frances L. Ilg, M. D., et al. Harper & Bros., New York, 1943. 399 pp. $4.

Developmental data, nursery-school technique, and child management or "guidance" are brought together in this book, which carries the subtitle, "The Guidance of Development in Home and Nursery School." Dr. Gesell is director of the Yale Clinic of Child Development, Dr. Ilg is associate professor of child development, and the other collaborators are members of the staff.

The authors have adopted an interesting device for relating the child's developmental level to his activities as a social being. For each age level there is a section entitled "Behavior profile," which shows in a general and approximate way a typical child of this age, and a section entitled "Behavior day," which is intended to portray the activities of this typical child around the clock and is interspersed with specific instructions to parents on child care and management. Beginning at the 18-month level there are also parallel sections for each age group on cultural and creative activities, nursery behavior (how he acts if he goes to a nursery school), and nursery techniques (advice to nursery-school teachers on how to handle a child of this age). There is also considerable factual material on self-demand schedules and self-regulation.

The book reiterates what Dr. Gesell calls the developmental philosophy of child care, a philosophy which, among other virtues, allows parents to enjoy their children.

K. B.

Your Own Story, by Marion L. Faegre. University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, Minn., 1943. 52 pp. Single copy, 50 cents; 10 to 1,000 copies, 25 cents each; 1,000 and up, 15 cents each.

One field in which most parents seem to feel themselves especially handicapped in guiding their children is the area of experience known as sex behavior. This pamphlet provides simple, strightforward, and friendly answers to many of the questions young children ask on this subject.

In style, content, and illustration it is designed primarily to be read by children themselves. For children who are too young to read or who prefer to listen rather than look, however, it is suitable for reading aloud.

"In the precarious but fascinating business of growing up," Your Own Story offers guidance for both parent and child.

• CHILD-WELFARE SERVICES •

A Typical Teen-Age Center Under Community Auspices

Teen-agers, "boys and girls together," now dance and play games in their own clubs in towns and cities in all parts of the United States. These centers have been made possible through the help of adults, but many of them were begun on the initiative of the youngsters.

The centers are called by such names as Teen-Age Club, Spider's Web, Commando Club, Campus Canteen, or just Youth Center. They are located in many kinds of buildings—a school, a church, an old garage. It is estimated that there are now between 300 and 400 such centers carried on under the auspices of public recreation departments, private settlements, youth-serving agencies, or other adults' organizations. They may be found in such places as Raleigh, N. C., Memphis, Tenn., Marshalltown, Iowa, Columbia, Mo., and Casper, Wyo.

Every center has its own individuality; no two are exactly alike. But the center at Raleigh, N. C., described here, is typical.

The Raleigh Teen-Age Club grew out of the needs of young people, mostly high-school boys and girls, who wanted a place of their own where they could dance and play games—"a place we can fix up and have there when we come back."

With the aid of the city recreation commission they looked for a place, and leased, at $120 a month, the only building available, an old three-story garage. The club members did the work of cleaning and decorating.

The rent is paid by the club—the dues are 50 cents a month; the profits from a soft-drink stand add to the club funds. Some of the equipment was paid for by the recreation department, some by the club; some was donated as a result of radio publicity.

The first floor is used for dancing (music by an orchestra of club members, helped by a juke box). The basement is a game room with table tennis, darts, and so forth. A reading room has been established, with books provided by the public library. A small room is used for the mimeographing of the club paper. For the benefit of members who work on late-afternoon shifts, the building is opened at noon.

Membership represents all sections of the city. Most of the members are 16 or 17 years old.

A junior board of governors, composed of club members, plans most of the programs and handles problems of discipline. A senior board of governors—adults appointed by the recreation commission—acts as adviser to the club.

The recreation commission has found that young people who had not been reached by other recreation programs are joining the club.

Recreation workers in general agree upon the following principles for carrying on teen-age centers:

That adults and young people should plan together for the establishment of the center and that the operating board should include adults that are representative of neighborhood groups, of the boards and professional staffs of youth-serving agencies, of school principals and teachers, and of the general public, as well as of the young people themselves.

That the teen-age program should be an integral part of a full community program of recreation and informal education for persons of all ages, and, particularly, that the location of the centers be planned in relation to the location of existing recreation facilities.[1]

That the program should be varied, including (1) active and quiet types of recreation; (2) programs suited to (a) large and small groups and (b) boys' and girls' groups, separately and combined; (3) activities promoting physical fitness, such as hikes and camping. The focus of the indoor programs should be on dancing and the game room; other activities may include such things as dramatics, photography, music, arts and crafts, and discussion. The informal atmosphere of the game room and the dance floor is likely to lead the teen-agers to take an interest in the additional activities if the adult leaders are skillful in directing the program.

[1] A complete and well-established community recreation program involves: (1) Full utilization of school buildings, parks and playgrounds, camping areas, community centers, museums, and libraries, (2) development of public recreation resources, (3) conduct of various recreation activities of youth-serving agencies, settlements, and churches, and (4) use of commercial recreation facilities, such as motion pictures, theaters, dance halls, bowling alleys, swimming pools, and skating rinks, under proper control through municipal ordinances and policing.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington, D. C.

• EVENTS OF CURRENT INTEREST •

Secretary of Labor's Annual Report

The thirty-first annual report of the Secretary of Labor, issued January 1944, includes suggestions for prompt action when peace comes, in order to facilitate the orderly return of the industrial population to normal peacetime ways. Several of the actions suggested directly affect the employment of minors. One such suggested action is the revocation of all permits that have been issued for the employment of minors for more than 8 hours a day, or for the employment of minors in ordinarily prohibited occupations. Another suggestion is that persons under 20 be encouraged to return to education—to school or college or vocational-training institutes.

Outstanding progress was made by the Children's Bureau during the year, according to the report, on (1) the provision of maternity and infant care for the wives and infants of men in the armed services; (2) development of State and local leadership for the organization of community programs for services for children of working mothers; (3) defining the coordinated programs needed for the prevention and control of juvenile delinquency in wartime; and (4) developing safeguards for young workers employed part time or full time in wartime agriculture and essential war industries.

Memorial Service for Mary Irene Atkinson

The American Public Welfare Association, the Child Welfare League of America, and the Children's Bureau will hold a memorial service in Washington, February 5, 1944, in honor of Mary Irene Atkinson, late Director of the Bureau's Child Welfare Division.

CONFERENCE CALENDAR

Feb. 4–6——— Conference of State Directors of Public Welfare and Supervisors of Child Welfare Services, called by the Children's Bureau at Washington.

Mar. 6——— Child Study Association of America, New York. Permanent headquarters: 221 W. 57th Street, New York.

Mar. 17–18——— Children's Bureau Commission on Children in Wartime. Fourth meeting. Washington.

Apr. 20–May 3—International Labor Organization. Twenty-sixth annual conference. Philadelphia. Permanent headquarters: Montreal.

May 19–22——— National Probation Association, Cleveland. Permanent headquarters: 1790 Broadway, New York.

May 21–27——— National Conference of Social Work, Cleveland.

May 24——— National Child Labor Committee. Cleveland. Permanent headquarters: 419 Fourth Avenue, New York.

Infancia, a Spanish edition of *The Child*, is now being published in Mexico City, Mexico, by the Instituto Panamericano de Bibliografía y Documentación, Sr. Miquel Ferrer, Director. A limited number of copies has been made available to persons in the United States through the assistance of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, and single copies may be had free by writing to the Children's Bureau, Washington 25, D. C. Subscriptions, at 60 cents (U. S. A.) a year, should be addressed to Instituto Panamericano de Bibliografía y Documentación, Apartado Postal 8626, Mexico, D. F.

Continuance of the publication of *Infancia* depends upon the number of subscriptions received.

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THE CHILD

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NITED STATES
EPARTMENT OF LABOR
HILDREN'S BUREAU

THE CHILD

MONTHLY BULLETIN

Volume 8, Number 9 March 1944

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The Children's Bureau does not necessarily assume responsibility for the statements or opinions of contributors not connected with the Bureau.

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UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY

CHILDREN'S BUREAU

KATHARINE F. LENROOT, CHIEF

WE ARE fighting again for human freedom and especially for the future of our children in a free world. Children must be safeguarded—and they can be safeguarded—in the midst of this total war so that they can live and share in that future.—*A Children's Charter in Wartime.*

SAFEGUARDING THE HEALTH OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN

A Promise to Children in War-Torn Areas

United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration

By Martha Branscombe

Consultant in International Social Services, U. S. Children's Bureau

Reports from enemy-dominated areas in Europe and Asia, although they cannot always be verified, reflect in grim detail the appalling toll war has already taken of child life and the ravaging consequences of war for children who still survive. It is not necessary to point out the plight of these children country by country—we know that millions of them are suffering from disease and from varying degrees of malnutrition; millions are orphaned, homeless, separated from their families, away from their homelands, and lacking clothing; millions are suffering from serious emotional disturbances—fear, insecurity, anxiety. As the United Nations forces move on, and the ravaged areas again see fighting, the suffering endured by children will be intensified and the numbers being debilitated will increase. All this presages grave consequences in the future.

In view of these facts, an event that occurred on November 9, 1943, is of far-reaching significance for the children in the war-torn areas. On this date, the 44 United Nations and the nations and authorities associated with them in the war signed an agreement establishing the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, commonly known as UNRRA. With the signing of this agreement, the United Nations took what President Roosevelt described as "the first bold steps toward the practical, workable realization of a thing called freedom from want."

Must Perform First and Greatest Tasks in Midst of War.

Although regarded as the first great instrument of the peace to come, UNRRA will have to perform its first and greatest tasks in the midst of war. Brought into being at what perhaps is the crisis of the struggle in Europe, it must work to reconcile the demands of peace with the exigencies of a continuing and intensified war, and, in a world in which the requirements of the military forces remain paramount, to perform the indispensable service of providing for the immediate material needs of liberated areas.

UNRRA is designed strictly as a temporary organization to function during the immediate emergency period following the liberation of occupied areas.

Meeting Civilian Needs in Liberated Areas Will Speed Victory.

President Roosevelt, on the occasion of the signing of the agreement, declared that while the war lasts meeting civilian needs in liberated areas will speed victory, and "when victory comes there can certainly be no secure peace until there is a return of law and order in the oppressed countries, until the peoples of these countries have been restored to a normal, healthy, and self-sustaining existence * * *. In UNRRA we have devised a mechanism, based on the processes of true democracy, which can go forward toward accomplishment of such an objective * * *."

Looking toward this same objective, the United Nations and the nations associated with them declared in the preamble of the agreement "that immediately upon the liberation of any area * * * the population thereof shall receive aid and relief from their sufferings; food, clothing and shelter; aid in the prevention of pestilence and in the recovery of the health of the people; and that preparation and arrangements shall be made for the return of prisoners and exiles to their homes and for assistance in the resumption of urgently needed agricultural and industrial production and the restoration of essential services, * * *."

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Responsibility for the activities involved in the fulfillment of this pledge to the victims of war is to be assumed by all the member nations acting together through UNRRA—each nation according to its own individual resources and constitutional procedures—each nation primarily responsible for meeting the needs of its own people.

The organization required to perform the functions of UNRRA is provided for by the agreement. There is a Council, which is the policy-making body, composed of one representative of each member government or authority. The Central Committee of the Council, composed of the representatives of China, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, the United Kingdom, and the United States, will deal with problems arising between sessions of the Council, but its actions are subject to ratification by the Council. Provision is also made for certain standing committees and regional committees. In addition, the Council is authorized to establish standing technical committees, or such other committees as may be desirable, to advise the Council, the Central Committee, and the Director General.

All executive authority of UNRRA is vested in the Director General, who is elected by and removable by the Council and who is authorized to establish such administrative framework as may be required to perform the functions of UNRRA.

From November 10 to December 1, 1943, the representatives of the member governments of UNRRA met at Atlantic City, N. J., in the first session of the Council, to translate their aspirations into workable machinery and to formulate the broad policies to guide the activities. To this end, one of its first acts was the election of the Honorable Herbert H. Lehman of the United States as its Director General.

First Session Devoted to Finding Ways and Means of Coping With Disaster.

As men of good will working together, the members of the Council and their assistants directed their efforts during its first session toward finding ways and means of coping with the disaster in which nation after nation has been devastated. This unprecedented task involved consideration of such matters as the scope of activities to be undertaken by the Administration (UNRRA), the procedures for estimating and obtaining supplies, the methods of financing and of assuring a fair apportionment and distribution of supplies. There were questions of relations between UNRRA and member governments, military authorities, and other existing intergovernmental bodies and nongovernmental agencies. There were also questions relating to the personnel required for these activities and to the administration of relief and rehabilitation measures in the field, particularly the activities relating to health, welfare, displaced persons, and agricultural and industrial rehabilitation.

In summarizing the achievements of the Council at its final plenary meeting, the chairman of the first session stated that its members had reached agreement upon a practicable program of defined scope; had formulated a workable plan for financing its program; had devised procedures for ascertaining and meeting needs—a plan that takes into account military requirements and at the same time assures fairness in meeting the needs of liberated areas; and had provided for an international organization to administer the policies laid down.

Areas and Activities Will Be Determined on Basis of Agreement.

The exact geographical areas in which UNRRA will operate and the kind of activities it will undertake in each case will be determined by the Director General on the basis of an agreement with the appropriate administrative authority of the area concerned. With respect to the geographical areas of operation, the Council declared that these might be of two types; namely, (1) any liberated area subject to the general conditions otherwise determined, and (2) if it appears necessary in carrying out the purposes of the agreement, an enemy or ex-enemy area. In case of an enemy or ex-enemy area, UNRRA will undertake activities "only from such a time and for such purposes as may be agreed upon between the military command, the established control authority or duly recognized administration of the area on the one hand and the Administration on the other, and subject to such control as the military command or the established control authority may find necessary; provided that the Council approve the scale and nature of the operations * * *." It was also declared that there was nothing to prevent UNRRA from carrying on activities in other areas, subject to an agreement with the recognized administrative authorities of such an area.

Since the activities of UNRRA will be directed toward restoring the self-sufficiency of victims of war in liberated areas and assisting the governments or authorities to resume their normal functions and to assume responsibility for their own reconstruction, the Council de-

termined that the supplies and services provided by UNRRA will include:

(1) *Relief supplies*, in the form of essential consumer goods;

(2) *Relief services*, such as health, welfare, and assistance to persons displaced as a consequence of war;

(3) *Rehabilitation supplies and services*, consisting of materials needed to enable a recipient country to produce and transport relief supplies for its own and other liberated areas, and essential technical services in this connection;

(4) *Rehabilitation of public utilities and services*, so far as they can be repaired or restored to meet immediate needs, such as light, water, sanitation, power, transport, communications, and material equipment for rehabilitation of educational institutions.

Under no circumstances, however, will UNRRA undertake relief and rehabilitation activities in any area while hostilities or other military necessities exist, except with the consent, and subject to the control, of the military command of the area concerned. This is in line with another general policy of UNRRA according to which its activities will be so conducted that they do not impede the effective prosecution of the war.

Primary Responsibility Rests in Government of Area.

It was fully recognized in every act of the Council, in its first session, that primary responsibility for relief and rehabilitation in any liberated area rests in the national government, or recognized national authority, of such area. It is therefore expected that the appropriate national authorities will organize and operate their own programs through normal channels of production and distribution, and existing health and welfare agencies and facilities, with such assistance from UNRRA as may be made available upon the request of the Government of the area concerned. It is also intended that member governments or authorities shall pay according to their resources for supplies and services made available by UNRRA. It was resolved by the Council, however, that no member government shall be denied essential supplies and services for relief and rehabilitation on the sole ground that it is not in a position to pay.

It is evident, therefore, that UNRRA does not expect to operate large-scale relief programs through its own staff in liberated areas. It is recognized by the Council, however, that in some areas the destruction and disruption of normal channels of distribution and essential facilities may make it impossible for the country to undertake relief activities immediately. Under such circumstances, UNRRA will be prepared, if requested by the country, to undertake direct operations to restore essential services and facilities and to provide temporary expedients to meet the emergency. In case of such activities it will be the policy of UNRRA to make the fullest possible use of local authorities and local organizations.

Whenever UNRRA resources are made available, regardless of what agency is responsible for distribution, all relief and rehabilitation is to be distributed in accordance with the principles and policies of UNRRA. Among the relief-distribution policies determined by the Council, in its first session, two of the most significant from the standpoint of children are those relating to nondiscrimination and ability to pay.

No Discrimination Because of Race, Creed, or Political Belief.

With respect to nondiscrimination, the Council declared that in any areas where UNRRA resources are used, in part or in whole, "relief and rehabilitation in all its aspects shall be distributed * * * fairly on the basis of the relative needs of the population in the area, and without discrimination because of race, creed, or political belief."

Recognizing the necessity of assuring essential relief for persons unable to pay, the Council determined that distribution of relief should be so conducted that "all classes of the population, irrespective of their purchasing power, shall receive their equitable shares of essential commodities."

In addition to these general provisions, what special consideration was given to the needs of children and mothers? There was probably no subject considered during the first session of the Council concerning which there was greater interest or unanimity of thought than that of the needs of children and pregnant and nursing mothers. The Council, its individual members, and its committees emphasized the special services, supplies, and personnel that will be required immediately for these groups.

In reports and statements concerning prevailing conditions in various countries, submitted by representatives of governments of occupied areas, special emphasis was placed on the serious effects of war upon children of all age groups and upon pregnant and nursing mothers. Nation after nation called the Council's attention to the urgency of establishing priorities for these vulnerable groups in order to assure prompt provision of appropriate food, medical

care, clothing, shelter, and health and welfare services.

Two subcommittees of the Council, one concerned with health and one with social welfare, took special cognizance of the critical needs of children and mothers, and the nature of services and types of personnel required to salvage and protect them and to restore them to normal development. Of paramount significance was the action of the Council accepting the report of its committee on relief and rehabilitation policies, which incorporated the reports of these two subcommittees containing special recommendations with respect to children and mothers.

This report specifically recommended that within the framework of the total relief and rehabilitation program and "with the closest collaboration between its health, welfare, and other appropriate organization units," UNRRA should make specific provision for welfare services, particularly for children and expectant and nursing mothers; that prompt and adequate provision should be made for the special health and nutritional needs of these vulnerable groups, including special measures to deal with communicable diseases among children, and with the particular health and social-welfare problems of orphan children and those who are lost or separated from their families. Special attention was called to the necessity for arranging appropriate care for unattached children and those within families displaced as a consequence of war.

Nutritional Standards Adequate for Maintenance of Health.

Taking into consideration the medical aspects of nutrition, the subcommittee on health pointed out the urgency of providing through the appropriate health unit for "nutritional standards adequate for the maintenance of health in the territories where it operates." This subcommittee also recommended that specialists should be employed by UNRRA in developing plans for providing food for children and pregnant and nursing mothers in order that its food policies "may be maintained in consonance with their special physiological needs."

In recognition of the serious effects of war experiences upon the emotional development of children the subcommittee further recommended that UNRRA should be prepared to assist member governments, upon their request, in dealing with "the conditions of anxiety, fear, and emotional disturbances which will have arisen in peculiarly great frequency among children and youth of occupied territories."

Of equal significance was the recognition of the importance of having on UNRRA staff, and making available to member governments, experts and specialists in maternal and child health, child welfare, and nutrition.

Health and Social-Welfare Services for Children and Mothers.

With regard to the administration of health and social-welfare services for children and mothers, both the subcommittee on health and the subcommittee on welfare recognized that provision of these services is a primary responsibility of the government of the country concerned and that the role of UNRRA should be to assist, wherever necessary, in reestablishing or strengthening national governmental agencies and facilities. Under these conditions, it was generally felt that one of UNRRA's major contributions might be the supplying of experts and specialists to assist in the reestablishment or development of essential services for these groups. Both subcommittees also pointed out that it should be the policy of UNRRA where governments have not established or designated appropriate agencies to assume responsibility for health and welfare services, to provide such services through its own staff, or enter into direct working relationships with appropriate local governmental agencies and authorities or with voluntary agencies.

In view of the highly technical character of the health work to be done for mothers and children, the subcommittee on health urged that consideration be given to the establishment of "an expert commission dealing with the health of mothers and children which might be related to comparable groups of experts dealing with other aspects of maternal and child care."

With regard to the role of foreign voluntary relief agencies, the agreement provided that such agencies "may not engage in activity in any area receiving relief from the Administration without the consent of and unless subject to the regulation of the Director General." The subcommittee on welfare recognized that voluntary agencies will have a valuable contribution to make to this program and recommended that it should be the policy of UNRRA "to enlist the cooperation of foreign voluntary relief agencies and to seek their participation in relief and rehabilitation measures which they have the competence, personnel, and other resources to administer and which can be effectively integrated with the UNRRA program as a whole." It was further recognized that such a working relationship will require careful supervision and coordination to prevent duplication or gaps in service.

Now we have a declaration of objectives and statements of policies designed to facilitate the achievement of those objectives. The extent to

which UNRRA will translate these into action, fulfilling the high hopes of the people of the world, remains to be seen. But certainly something new has come into the world, endowed with potentialities that may be implemented and developed, or allowed to languish and perish.

For the children of the world today—and for those of tomorrow—the creation of UNRRA is significant both as machinery that can be operated for relief purposes during a period of acute but passing emergency, and also as a concrete instrument through which the inescapable necessity for common action may lead to fixed habits of cooperation in this field.

As the Director General, Mr. Lehman, declared to the Council as it began its work at Atlantic City, "We have been called upon twice within the span of a lifetime to devise a peace in which all men can live in freedom from fear and want. We failed once. We dare not fail again."

Tri-State Conference on Poliomyelitis

At the suggestion of crippled children's agencies in Texas, Oklahoma, and Kansas—three States hit hard by the poliomyelitis epidemic of 1943—a conference on basic planning for dealing with such epidemics was held by these three States in cooperation with the Children's Bureau, February 23–24, 1944, at Oklahoma City, Okla. The chairman of the conference was Dr. A. L. Van Horn, Assistant Director for Crippled Children, Division of Health Services, Children's Bureau.

Methods were reviewed by which public and private agencies concerned with the problem have worked together successfully, avoiding duplication. Stress was laid upon the importance of coordination, under the leadership of the State crippled children's agency, of such organizations and agencies as National and State crippled children's societies; the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis and its local committees; the American Red Cross; State university medical schools; State departments of public welfare and of health; and medical, nursing, and social-work groups.

How to make more efficient use of personnel with special training was considered, and the establishment of registers showing the particular types of training of individuals was urged—for example, of nurses with training in physical therapy. The practicability of lending personnel in case of epidemic, with provision for their returning to the home State if necessity arises, was discussed.

Several States reported successful training of volunteers, some of whom had had previous training as nurses' aides, to assist the nurses in caring for infantile-paralysis patients, especially in giving hot packs.

The great shortage in hospital beds, it was reported, has brought about urgent need for medical-social work to make available beds for children with acute poliomyelitis by planning for children who could be cared for outside the hospital to be discharged and cared for elsewhere.

Emergency Maternity and Infant Care Program

E M I C Circular No. 1 Issued

As an aid in administering and interpreting the Emergency Maternity and Infant Care Program the Children's Bureau has published a bulletin, "Administrative Policies—Emergency Maternity and Infant Care Program" (EMIC Information Circular No. 1, Washington, December 1943, 22 pp.). This bulletin, which supersedes MCH Information Circular 13, contains information needed by State health agencies administering emergency maternity and infant-care programs and by other persons and agencies concerned with the provision of services under this program.

The individuals for whom, and the conditions under which, EMIC services may be authorized are specifically stated in the bulletin. Procedures to be followed in applying for care and in authorizing care are outlined. The services that may be authorized by State or local health agencies and the rates of payment for services of physicians in private practice and for services provided through clinics and hospitals are given in detail. Qualifications for physicians and nurses and minimum requirements for hospitals participating in the program are specified.

These administrative policies have been developed by the Children's Bureau within the framework of the Congressional acts and the

regulations of the Secretary of Labor, and have been modified in the light of the experience of State health agencies and with the advice of the Bureau's professional advisory committees. Recommendations made at the conference of official representatives of servicemen and medical organizations held in December 1943 were taken into consideration in revising the policies. Supplemental statements of policy will be issued dealing with health supervision of infants and with other questions that may arise.

Applications for Care Accepted

Nearly 200,000 maternity and pediatric cases had been accepted by State health agencies for care under the emergency maternity and infant-care program up to February 1, 1944. This program of medical, hospital, and nursing services was authorized by Congress in March 1943 for the purpose of providing, without cost to the serviceman or his family, maternity care for the wives of enlisted men in the four lowest pay grades of the armed forces and pediatric care for their infants during the first year of life. The number of cases accepted for care each month increased rapidly during 1943, as State plans were approved by the Children's Bureau and put into operation in State after State. By December 1943 only North Dakota and Puerto Rico had no approved plan. The number of applications for care approved by State health agencies in 1943, by quarters, and in January 1944, are as follows:

Period	*Number of cases*
Total	194,686
April–June 1943 (3 months)	15,847
July–September 1943 (3 months)	53,353
October–December 1943 (3 months)	91,896
January 1944 (1 month)	33,590

BOOK NOTES

The Health of Children in Occupied Europe. International Labor Office, Montreal, 1943. 37 pp. 25 cents.

This preliminary survey of the effects of the war on the health of children in areas of Europe occupied by German forces is necessarily based on fragmentary data covering varying periods and selected from sources of varying reliability, as the International Labor Office points out. The table of legal rations for children is based for the most part on conditions at the beginning of 1943. It is believed that since then conditions have further deteriorated. Nevertheless, this bulletin brings together in small compass considerable detailed information on legal food rations, shortages in food supplies, lowered nutritive values in available foods, dietary deficiencies, and also on living conditions that undermine health, such as lack of fuel, shoes, clothing supplies, and soap. The countries on which some information is given include Belgium, France, Greece, the Netherlands, Norway, and Poland. Data could not be obtained from Yugoslavia nor from occupied areas of Soviet Russia.

The consequences to child health are described in terms of malnutrition, deficiency diseases, lowered birth rates, increased infant mortality, and the spread of tuberculosis, skin diseases, malaria, diphtheria, and (in Poland) typhus. The psychological and social effects are no less alarming: Even where educational systems are not altogether disrupted, school attendance is irregular and the progress that children make in their studies is slow; standards of behavior tend to lose their meaning under the pressure of long-continued hunger, cold, and poverty; the subjection and humiliation imposed on conquered peoples have demoralizing effects on children. The experiences suffered by vast numbers of children who have been bombed, evacuated, deported, separated from their families, subjected to forced labor, or confined in refugee camps or barracks are bound to have a profound influence on their mental development and social adjustment.

The report concludes with a summary of the first steps taken by the United Nations looking toward the relief and rehabilitation of occupied areas through international collaboration.

Europe's Children. 1939 to 1943, by Thérèse Bonney. Duell, Sloan, & Pearce, New York, 1944. 162 pp. $3.

The story of what war is doing to the children of Europe is told by Miss Bonney in photographs taken wherever her work as war correspondent led her—in Spain after the Spanish Civil War, in France during the Battle of France and after the collapse, in Finland during the Russian-Finnish War. Here are homeless, hungry children, refugee mothers with babies in their arms, children peering hopeless through the barbed wire of a concentration camp, emaciated infants with stomachs bloated by starvation. There are no soldiers, no tanks, no guns—just the toll of war on children and its relation to a post-war world.

Understanding Ourselves, by Marion L. Faegre. University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, Minn., 1943. 43 pp. Single copy, 50 cents.

This booklet is a companion piece to "Your Own Story," reviewed in *The Child* for February 1944. It is written for older children and adolescents and gives an accurate, honest, and clear picture of the biology of reproduction against a background of the social implications of love and marriage.

The spirit and purpose of the booklet are best given in the words of the author:

"Safeguarding one's own future happiness may seem like a selfish thing to do. But every time one home is made more secure against the distress of misunderstandings, of personality conflicts, of the deep unhappiness associated with sex problems, the whole of our society benefits."

• CHILD-WELFARE SERVICES •

Juvenile-Delinquency Number of the Survey Midmonthly

Juvenile delinquency is dealt with in the March 1944 issue of the *Survey Midmonthly* as a challenge to concerted action, now and after the war. The considered opinions of such persons as Austin H. MacCormick, Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck, and Katharine F. Lenroot, and factual material, including the first published report on conditions in 10 cities visited by Genevieve Gabower of the Children's Bureau staff, indicate need for the study of local conditions and the laying down of a broad program for delinquency prevention on a neighborhood basis, supplemented by State and Federal services. Bradley Buell, with wide experience in community organization, tells how to go about such a study. The ways in which the police can be utilized as an aid to prevention are pointed out by Eliot Ness; and Kathryn Close discusses the ways in which parents, teachers, church workers, and leaders of youth can work together to make a long-range program effective.

Because the paper shortage limits the edition printed, persons wishing to order copies of the Juvenile Delinquency number are advised to place their orders at once with the *Survey Midmonthly*, 112 East Nineteenth Street, New York 3, N. Y. Price: 1 copy, 30 cents; 4 copies, $1; 100 copies, $17.

Parents' Committee Plans Recreation Program for Teen-Agers

The Roseau (Minn.) Recreation Club had its beginning in the early spring of 1942, when a committee of adults—mostly parents of teen-age children—realized that a summer program of activities must be planned to furnish fun during the idle vacation hours. It was an urgent need, for in this small town of about 2,000 population there was no provision for entertainment for the young people. Even the bowling alley was closed for the summer. No director was available for the school band. The only sources of entertainment were roadhouses where liquor was sold.

The parents' committee arranged several group activities—swimming, folk dancing, dramatics, and hiking—each group supervised by an adult who gave his or her services free. The old swimming hole was improved, and a diving board added; and the instructor and coach had such an enthusiastic response that he was kept busy 2 hours a day, 5 days a week. Folk dancing was taught once a week, as was group singing. The drama groups met twice a week, and so did the kitten-ball league.

The drama groups gave skits, a musical show, and a three-act play, and the folk dancers performed at the county 4–H fair.

But the high point of the program was the party that was given every 3 weeks at the municipal auditorium. Only participants in the program and their parents were admitted, and every party was a huge success. At 8 o'clock in the evening the party would begin with community singing; then followed a program put on by the club members; then organized games until 10 o'clock. From then until 11:30 there was dancing to the music of an orchestra provided free by local talent.

At the second party the children elected their own officers, and after that they took more responsibility for arranging the parties; the third one was arranged entirely by themselves.

The original committee of adults have been well pleased with the results of the summer-recreation program.

—*Mrs. R. S. Rice, Roseau, Minn.*

BOOK NOTE

PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK; Selected Papers. (Seventieth Annual Meeting. War Regional Conferences, New York, St. Louis, Cleveland.) Columbia University Press, New York, 1943. 491 pp.

In the Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work, 1943, are included some of the papers planned for the canceled Cleveland regional meeting, as well as some of those read at the New York and St. Louis meetings.

The subject matter has been assembled under four general headings: (1) Manpower to win the war, (2) social work and war, (3) social security—now and after the war, and (4) social work and post-war planning.

A Program for Safe Employment of Young Workers

Facing a trend toward greatly increased employment of 16- and 17-year-olds in war industries—many in jobs in which heretofore only adults had been employed—the Children's Bureau late in 1942 began formulating advisory standards to assist in selecting suitable jobs for these young workers. These advisory standards, presented in a series of leaflets entitled "Which Jobs for Young Workers?" point out not only the occupations in which minors under 18 might work with comparative safety, but also those in which they should not be employed. Leaflet No. 1, issued in October 1942, was Employment of Young Workers in War Industries. This introduction to the series gave some of the background and philosophy of the placement of minors in safe jobs. Since then seven more leaflets have been issued, each presenting standards for a specific industry or related occupations. They cover Shipbuilding (No. 2), Lead and Lead-Using Industries (No. 3), Employment Involving Exposure to Carbon Disulfide (No. 4), Employment Involving Exposure to Chlorinated Solvents (No. 5), Welding Occupations (No. 6), The Operation of Metal-Working Machines (No. 7), and the Aircraft Industry (No. 8). Several others are now in preparation, and others will be issued from time to time.

The Children's Bureau has received many requests for copies of these advisory-standards leaflets as well as letters stating that the standards have been found helpful in solving some of the problems of youth employment. Many leaflets go to trade associations who wish copies for their members, others to unions. Government agencies operating industrial plants request copies as a guide in placing their young workers.

The advisory standards have been planned to supplement existing State and Federal child-labor standards, which establish minimum ages for employment in hazardous occupations, by giving additional information on the hazards of jobs in which, under the child-labor standards, 16- and 17-year-olds may legally be employed.

A year's experience has shown that there is a place for such supplementary standards and that industry will cooperate by voluntarily putting them into effect. This experience has shown also that simply placing young people in the least hazardous jobs is not in itself sufficient to prevent these workers from getting hurt and that some other approach is also needed—a definite recognition by employers that large numbers of 16- and 17-year-old workers create a special safety problem, requiring emphasis on safe surroundings and on training and supervision.

To meet this need the Bureau is offering employers an outline of a program to provide for the safety and health of workers under 18 years of age, in a new version (in press), of the introductory leaflet of the advisory-standards series, now entitled Advisory Standards for the Safe Employment of Young Workers. These standards suggest a three-point program, involving (1) employment in the least hazardous jobs, (2) a safe and healthful place to work, and (3) thorough training and close supervision.

Under the heading, "Employment in the least hazardous jobs," the advisory standards point out that the policy urged by the War Manpower Commission of protecting minors by employing them only in the least hazardous occupations is not new. One of the functions of most State child-labor laws is to prevent minors from working at dangerous jobs. The child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act also provide such protection through the power given the Chief of the Children's Bureau to declare occupations particularly hazardous for minors of 16 and 17 years, for such a declaration has the effect of establishing a minimum age of 18 years for such occupations. The leaflet lists the hazardous-occupations orders that have been issued.

With regard to "A safe and healthful place to work," the standards note that teen-age

workers have not yet learned to protect themselves from injury and must depend on physical safeguards. As perhaps the most important protection needed the standards specify proper guarding of machinery and equipment.

In the matter of "Thorough training and close supervision," the standards recognize that even when employed in the least hazardous jobs and in the safest possible surroundings, young workers need help in learning safe working habits. Since many shop practices are learned during the first year of employment the standards emphasize that good supervision of young and inexperienced workers is essential if they are to learn to work safely.

The Children's Bureau is planning a wide distribution of the revised leaflet and is prepared to assist employers in setting up the three-point program for the safe employment of their young workers.

Employers Fined in Four Recent Child-Labor Cases

A number of cases of violations of the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938 have been successfully prosecuted in recent months. Four of these are summarized here.

As was stated in *The Child* for December 1943,[1] the Children's Bureau has consistently sought to effect compliance through educational means whenever this was possible. For the majority of employers a warning against further violations has been sufficient. There have been, however, employers who were willing to take the risk involved in employing children illegally or who in violating the act indicated gross negligence or careless disregard for its requirements, and to ensure future compliance by such employers, the Bureau has found legal action necessary.

The facts brought out in the four cases recently prosecuted are as follows:

Employment of Children Under 16 Years in a Processing Operation

On inspection of a seafood-packing establishment 26 children under 16 were found heading shrimp. Twenty-two of these children were under 14, and half of these were under 12 years of age; one was a boy of 8, who headed shrimp into his grandmother's bucket. Most of these children, according to their own statements, had worked in this establishment during at least one previous shrimp season; one, who was not yet 14, had worked four seasons.

Some time before this inspection, the employer had been given a statement regarding the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act.

Criminal proceedings were instituted, and the employer was fined $360 and was placed on probation for 2 years.

The inspection in this case took place in 1942. At present, as a wartime measure, the heading and peeling of shrimp for shipment as fresh-raw or fresh-frozen shrimp is permitted for children 14 and 15 years of age outside school hours. As all but 4 of the 26 children in this case were under 14 at the time of the inspection, the exemption, if it had been in effect at the time, would not have changed the premises upon which the case was brought to court.

Employment of Minors Under 18 in a Hazardous Occupation

A furniture manufacturer, upon inspection of his plant, was found to have employed 11 minors under 18 years of age in the operation of power-driven woodworking machines during the period from September 1941 to October 1942, contrary to the provisions of Hazardous Occupations Order No. 5. During the course of previous inspections the employer had been given information regarding oppressive child labor found in the establishment and had been informed of the provisions of the order.

[1] McConnell, Beatrice: Five Years of Federal Control of Child Labor; Children's Bureau experience in administration of the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. *The Child*, vol. 8, pp. 83–92 (December 1943).

Examination of the work permits of the minors employed in this hazardous occupation showed that most of the permits were issued for employment in nonhazardous occupations, and it was evident that the employer had made incorrect entries regarding the occupations in which the minors were to work.

That the employer knew that minors under 18 should not have been operating power-driven woodworking machines is indicated by the minors' signed statements. According to these statements the employer or one of his foremen had told the minors to stop operating these machines if any stranger came into the plant and if questioned to deny that they had operated them. One of the statements, by a 17-year-old boy, revealed the fact that when asked by the inspector whether he operated any woodworking machine, he said he did not, because the foreman was standing nearby. The boy said he was afraid that if he admitted he operated a machine the employer would discharge him.

A number of the minors stated that they had frequently received hand injuries in the course of the work on the machines.

Criminal proceedings were instituted, and a fine of $1,000 was imposed upon the employer.

Employment of Children Under 16 in a Manufacturing Occupation

During the course of an inspection of a plant manufacturing industrial carbon products, such as brushes for electric motors and generators, 26 minors under 16 were found to have been employed in manufacturing occupations, contrary to the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. The employer was notified by the inspector that employment of these minors constituted oppressive child labor. Twelve days later, however, when the plant was revisited, the children were still employed.

The continued employment of these children in the face of the earlier notification showed this employer's attitude toward compliance. One official of the company was quoted as saying, "Laws are made to be broken" and "An exception will be made in our case." A statement by the company claimed that the employment of the minors was the result of a critical shortage of adult labor. Besides, according to its attorney, the company believed the employment of minors was justified at this time in view of the war emergency. With regard to the alleged shortage of adult labor, the United States Employment Service reported that there had been no such shortage for this type of work in the locality. With regard to the need due to war emergency, the evidence showed that none of the minors under 16 was employed on war-contract work.

The company was convicted of willful and flagrant violation of the child-labor provisions of the act, and a fine of $2,000 was imposed. The presiding judge made a strong statement to the effect that war work was no excuse for violation of the law and commended the Children's Bureau for prosecuting firms that violate the child-labor provisions of the act.

Employment of Children Under 16 in Agriculture at a Time When State Law Required Them To Be in School

An establishment for growing and harvesting vegetables, which included a cannery, was inspected in April 1942, and the inspection revealed that children under 16 years of age were being employed at a time when the law required them to be in school—a violation of one of the child-labor provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. As a result of this inspection judgment was entered against the company that employed the children, restraining it from further violation of this provision of the act. About a year later, a report by school authorities stated that a number of children were remaining out of school to cut spinach at this establishment. Each day, according to the report, the company truck picked up a number of school children and took them to the fields to work at a time when the State law required them to be in school. On one occasion, a school principal stated, she went during school hours to the fields where the children were employed, them to be in school. On one occasion, a school The man in charge of the fields promised, according to the principal, to refrain from hiring the school children, but kept his promise only 1 day.

At the time of the 1943 inspection 15 children under 16 years of age—11 of them under 14—were found in the company's fields cutting spinach at a time when the law required them to attend school. Statements by the general manager of the establishment indicated that he was fully aware of the child-labor provisions of the act and of the fact that the company had been enjoined less than a year before against further violations.

Each of three defendants in the case was found guilty of criminal contempt of the court's judgment, and each was fined $50.

Long-Term Trends Affecting Post-War Youth Employment[1]

Young people entering the labor market will be affected in the future, as in the past, by certain long-term economic and population trends, even though some of these trends have been temporarily reversed by the pressure of war, according to Paul T. David, who has analyzed some of these trends in a report entitled, "Post-War Youth Employment," published by the American Council on Education.

One chapter of the report deals with the problems of migration that will arise after the war on account of the fact that the geography of employment in peacetime will necessarily differ from that in wartime. "Even if a high level of peacetime employment can be maintained," the author says, "the locations at which employment is available will be sufficiently different from the present to require an amount of migration during the readjustment period comparable to that during the war."

The need for better educational opportunity for children and youth is brought forcibly to mind by the author's conclusion that:

> There is every reason to expect both a relative and an absolute decline in the need for unskilled labor in coming decades. Increasingly the common-labor jobs of former years are being mechanized and eliminated in one way or another. This does not mean that we shall not need the people who formerly would have performed the jobs; but if they are to live useful, constructive lives, many of them must rise to a level of competence distinctly above that which has been required for their present status.
>
> The problem is mainly that of how to upgrade unskilled labor into a level of employment opportunity where the long-run prospects are better. Our current wartime experience is demonstrating that upgrading is possible on a much wider scale than was formerly believed. It has become much more obvious than before the war that employability and unemployability are relative terms. Many who would have been considered unemployable not long ago are now being hired and gradually upgraded into jobs as operatives and kindred workers.
>
> When the war is over, something analogous to the upgrading process must still continue for oncoming youth. As long as the long-term need for unskilled labor is declining and the net reproduction rate in the unskilled labor group is above 100, the children of the unskilled will largely grow up into unemployment unless measures are taken which will enable most of them to move forward into work at the factory operative, clerical, and higher levels.

This prospect emphasizes the need for present planning for full provision of the kind and quality of education needed by children, youth, and adults, and equal access to such education, that was recommended by the National Resources Planning Board in its Post-War Plan and Program[2] submitted to the President a year ago. According to that report, "The Nation is now spending less than 50 percent of the amount needed to provide a justifiable minimum educational program."

The author closes on a hopeful note. So far as economic opportunity is concerned, he says,

> Most people now realize that while as individuals we seem at the mercy of the economic fates, as a nation we can take charge of our destiny. If our approach to public policy for the post-war situation is resolute and wise, we shall find the way to achieve a level of peacetime opportunity fully commensurate with our rising potential. Within the general framework of our social and economic policy as a whole, our basic attitudes toward youth will determine the outcome of affairs with respect to them.

He sounds a warning, however, as to public responsibility in the following words:

> In recent years we have had a larger number of youth 16 to 25 than at any previous time in the history of the country. The number will begin to decline almost immediately because of the downturn in the total number of births which took place in the middle years of the 1920's. Notwithstanding the record number of births in the single year 1942, the total number of youth in this country may never again be as large as it is now. War casualties will strike hardest at the present generation of youth, and will undoubtedly be severe before we win through this period of total war.
>
> When we count our losses at the end of the war and consider the narrowing base of our population pyramid as we confront the future, a permanent change in our attitudes toward children and young people should be the least of the adjustments we are willing to make.
>
> * * * The point is that we can no longer afford, if we ever could, to neglect the interests of all children and youth. The poor, the unfortunate, and the isolated must all be brought within the scope of our policy, because all will be needed.

That Mr. David's report is the last that will be issued under the auspices of the American Youth Commission is announced by the Commission's director in a foreword to the report. The American Youth Commission, he states, was established in 1935 by the American Council of Education, from which it received a mandate to (1) consider the needs of youth and appraise the facilities and resources for serving those

[1] David, Paul T.: Post-War Youth Employment; a study of long-term trends. Prepared by the American Youth Commission. Published by the American Council on Education, Washington, 1943. 172 pp.

[2] National Resources Development—Report for 1943. Part 1. Post-War Plan and Program, January, 1943. National Resources Planning Board. Washington, D. C.

needs; (2) plan experiments and programs which will be most helpful in solving the problems of youth; (3) popularize and promote desirable plans of action through publications, conferences, and demonstrations. The Commission, adds the director, has completed the assignment for which it was created; certain of its activities are being continued by the Committee on Youth Problems of the American Council on Education.

BOOK NOTES

Protecting Junior Child-Care Aides; recommendations for protection of junior child-care aides giving volunteer service or engaging in part-time employment. Prepared by the United States Office of Civilian Defense in cooperation with the Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, and the United States Office of Education, Federal Security Agency. OCD Publication 3631, Washington, November 1943. 6 pp.

Suggestions for safeguarding the greatly expanding numbers of children taking jobs are presented in this leaflet for the use of representatives of defense councils; departments of education, welfare, and labor; colleges and other educational institutions; youth-serving agencies; and others interested in training and placing young people as Junior Volunteer Child-Care Aides.

"In developing a community program," says the leaflet, "Consideration should be given to the standards of the State child-labor laws, the War Manpower Commission Policy on the Employment of Youth Under 18 Years of Age, and standards for part-time employment of students. Basic to such a program are the principles that in no event should children under 14 be employed, that hours of work should permit the worker time for adequate rest, study, sleep, and recreation, that the work should be in suitable surroundings and that legal standards for child-labor protection should be observed."

Student Wage Earners in Wartime; part-time work of students in public secondary schools of Baltimore, Md., by Caroline E. Legg. Processed. 1944.

The kinds of jobs that thousands of city high-school boys and girls are engaged in outside school hours, the hours that they work, accident hazards in these jobs, and the general break-down in child-labor standards because of the illegality of much of their employment, are the subjects treated in the bulletin, "Student Wage Earners in Wartime." The report is based on a survey made by the Children's Bureau in December 1942 in cooperation with the local school authorities in Baltimore, Md.

More than 30,000 students in 36 public secondary schools in Baltimore were questioned in the course of this study, which revealed that 10,488 of these students, or 1 out of every 3, had some kind of job. More than one-fourth of all students under 16 years of age (more than one-fifth of those under 14) and well over one-half of those 16 and 17 years of age were working outside school hours.

The bulk of employment was in service industries and retail trade. Hours of work for many students were long and late, particularly for those working in drug stores, grocery stores, restaurants, bowling alleys, and theaters, and exceeded the hours recommended in the statement of policies for part-time employment of in-school youth issued jointly by the War Manpower Commission, the Office of Education, and the Children's Bureau.

Of 1,600 student workers in three large schools selected for special study, one-third worked regularly 6 or 7 days in the week. Two-thirds of those working on school days worked until after 7 o'clock, 15 percent worked until after 10 o'clock, some until after midnight. More than 40 percent of the student workers under 16 were employed contrary to age, hour, or work-certificate provisions of the State child-labor law. Some children got hurt—cut on meat slicers in grocery stores, hit by flying pins in bowling alleys, knocked off bicycles when delivering messages.

Case stories are used freely throughout the report. Types of community action needed to deal with the problems found are briefly discussed.

Copies of the report are available from the Children's Bureau on request.

Your High-School Record—Does It Count? Compiled by Robert D. Falk, State High-School Supervisor, South Dakota Department of Public Instruction, Pierre, S. Dak., 1943.

Mr. Falk has brought together in a most unusual and striking fashion letters and statements from personnel directors in business offices, industrial plants, the Army, and even colleges, as to what qualifications they are looking for in young employees, recruits, or students. All of these officials stress the importance of high-school graduation and a record that shows good basic training, achievement in specific skills, and qualities of character and personality that will be assets not only to the business or service entered, but to the young person himself in his pursuit of a career. Copies of letters and application forms, which bear occasional handwritten comments of the editor, constitute the bulk of the exhibit. In its bright-green, red-trimmed jacket this book on a library table will catch the eye of any student, and will undoubtedly spur many a one to greater effort in his school work. The material should also prove of considerable aid to teachers, counselors, parents, and community groups whose job it is to convince high-school students that their first responsibility even in wartime is to stay in school and make the most of their educational opportunities.

School or Job, by Kate Clugston. National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Ave., New York, 1943. 10 pp. Mimeographed.

The pros and cons of jobs for school children are discussed in this 15-minute radio sketch, which can readily be adapted to local use. The central character is a high-school boy with a part-time job, who offers some lively "comebacks" to the views expressed by his mother, his employer, his teacher, a clergyman, a town official, and a representative citizen. Through their several points of view the importance of education, the need for trained leaders, the dangers of illegal employment, and other important points are brought out.

• EVENTS OF CURRENT INTEREST •

Russia

Industrial Training of Young Workers

The Nation-wide program of compulsory industrial training of young people 14 to 17 years of age, introduced in Russia in October 1940, has been proceeding without interruption despite the war. The number of schools providing this training has increased from 1,550 at the end of 1940 to 1,700 in September 1943. In that period more than 2½ million boys and girls entered these schools; 1½ million of them had completed their training by the end of September 1943 and had entered various industries. The young persons, while undergoing their training, are also engaged in productive work in the respective industries. In addition, some are helping the farmers to repair farm machinery; others have been sent to the liberated provinces to help in the restoration of industries, in the rebuilding of electric power stations and schools, and in other work.

Pravda, Moscow, October 2, 1943.

Great Britain

Post-War Planning for Young People

From the Board of Education of Great Britain have been received two documents relating to post-war planning for young people in England:

Educational Reconstruction (Board of Education Cmd. 6458, July 1943. 36 pp. 6d. net) announces the intention of the Board of Education to put into effect as soon as possible after the war the raising of the school-leaving age to 15 years, postponed in 1939, and to make a further extension to 16 years at a later date. It also states that all young persons 15 to 18 years of age will be required to attend an appropriate center part time, unless they are in full-time attendance at school or otherwise under suitable part-time instruction. The term "day continuation school" will be abandoned, however, in favor of "young people's colleges" in order to make clear that young people entering are not merely going back to school but are entering a new phase of development.

The Youth Service After the War (Board of Education, August 1943. 32 pp. 6d. net) is a report of the Youth Advisory Council appointed by the President of the Board of Education in 1942 to advise him on questions relating to the Youth Service. It states that Youth Committees have been appointed by every local education authority for higher education and that there has been a marked increase in the number of young people who have come within the range of youth activities. It advises in favor of continuing the present policy of free voluntary cooperation of young people in leisure-time activities as against compulsion, which, it stresses would mean "the loss of that freedom to choose for oneself."

Juvenile Delinquency

Juvenile delinquency, which had increased during the early years of the war, began to decline in Great Britain in 1942, according to Juvenile Delinquency in Britain During the War (British Information Services, New York, I. D. 390, revised July 1943). The total number of children under 16 charged with indictable offenses rose from 29,123 in 1939 to 38,688 in 1940 and reached a peak of 44,298 in 1941. In 1942 the total fell again to 37,846. (Figures are for 12-month periods ending August 31 of each year.) The decrease applied both to children 8 to 14 years of age and to young persons 14 to 16, but was much greater for boys than for girls.

This report attributes the wartime increase in juvenile delinquency in Britain to the opportunities for unlawful acts afforded by the prolonged black-out; dislocations of home life, evacuation of school children from London, the destruction of homes in target areas, shelter life, the absence of parents in the services and on war work; wartime restlessness; disruption of school life; high wages, often due to exceptionally long hours, obtained by many boys and girls inexperienced in self-direction; and delay in admitting young people to congested remedial institutions.

Foremost among the measures credited with the reduction in juvenile delinquency are the reopening of most schools in the target areas in 1941, the increasing use of social-work methods in treatment of juvenile delinquents, reduction of working hours, and the Youth Services developed by the Board of Education and the Department of Education for Scotland with the cooperation of the juvenile courts, the churches, the youth-serving agencies, the several branches of the armed forces, and the trade unions.

CONFERENCE CALENDAR

Mar. 17–18
Children's Bureau Commission on Children in Wartime. Fourth meeting. Washington.

Mar. 20–23
Association of State and Territorial Health Officers. Conference with the Children's Bureau and with the U. S. Public Health Service, Washington.

Apr. 20–
May 3
International Labor Organization. Twenty-sixth annual conference, Philadelphia. Permanent headquarters: Montreal.

May 10–12
National Tuberculosis Association. Chicago. Permanent headquarters: 1790 Broadway, New York.

May 11–15
American Association on Mental Deficiency. Sixty-eighth annual convention. Philadelphia. Permanent headquarters: 372–374 Broadway, New York.

May 17–21
American Physiotherapy Association. Twenty-second annual conference, New York. Permanent headquarters: 720 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

May 19–22
National Probation Association. Cleveland. Permanent headquarters: 1790 Broadway, New York.

May 21–27
National Conference of Social Work. Cleveland.

May 24
National Child Labor Committee. Cleveland. Permanent headquarters: 419 Fourth Avenue, New York.

June 6–8
American Nurses' Association. Biennial convention, Buffalo, N. Y. Permanent headquarters: 1790 Broadway, New York.

June 12–16
American Medical Association. Annual session, Chicago. Permanent headquarters: 535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago.

July 4–7
National Education Association of the United States. Eighty-second annual meeting, Pittsburgh. Permanent headquarters: 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington.

Infancia, a Spanish edition of *The Child*, is now being published in Mexico City, Mexico, by the Instituto Panamericano de Bibliografía y Documentación, Sr. Miquel Ferrer, Director. A limited number of copies has been made available to persons in the United States through the assistance of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, and single copies may be had free by writing to the Children's Bureau, Washington 25, D. C. Subscriptions, at 60 cents (U. S. A.) a year, should be addressed to Instituto Panamericano de Bibliografía y Documentación, Apartado Postal 8626, Mexico, D. F.

Continuance of the publication of *Infancia* depends upon the number of subscriptions received.

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THE CHILD

Vol. 8 April 1944 No. 10

CHILD HEALTH DAY—1944

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

A PROCLAMATION

WHEREAS, the Congress by joint resolution of May 18, 1928 (45 Stat. 617), has authorized and requested the President of the United States to issue annually a proclamation setting apart May 1 as Child Health Day:

NOW, THEREFORE, I, FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT, President of the United States of America, in recognition of the importance to every child and young person of a healthy body and a sturdy spirit, do hereby designate May 1 of this year as Child Health Day.

And I invite our boys and girls to use this occasion as a time to gather with parents, teachers, and other citizens, or by themselves, in schools, churches, and community centers, and to consider how we can make our home and community life contribute in full measure to the building of buoyant health and valiant spirit in all our boys and girls.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States of America to be affixed.

DONE at the City of Washington this seventeenth day of March in the year of our Lord nineteen hundred and forty-four and of the Independence of the United States of America the one hundred and sixty-eighth.

[SEAL]

FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT

By the President:
CORDELL HULL
Secretary of State

NITED STATES
EPARTMENT OF LABOR
HILDREN'S BUREAU

U. S. SUPERINTENDENT OF DOCUMENTS
MAY 6 1944

THE CHILD

MONTHLY BULLETIN

Volume 8, Number 10

April 1944

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Publication of THE CHILD, Monthly Bulletin, with SOCIAL STATISTICS supplements from time to time, was authorized by the Bureau of the Budget, May 12, 1936, under Rule 42 of the Joint Committee on Printing, to meet the need of agencies working with or for children for a regular channel of information on current developments, activities, policies, and programs for maintaining the health of mothers and children, providing child-welfare services, and safeguarding the employment of youth. Communications should be addressed to Miriam Keeler, editor, The Child, Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington 25, D. C.

The Children's Bureau does not necessarily assume responsibility for the statements or opinions of contributors not connected with the Bureau.

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UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY

CHILDREN'S BUREAU
KATHARINE F. LENROOT, CHIEF

Children's Bureau Commission on Children in Wartime

Goals for Children and Youth As We Move From War to Peace

Adopted March 17–18, 1944

The Need and the Challenge

After more than 2 years of war, the families and communities of our Nation are being drawn increasingly into total mobilization for the success of our cause. In the ranks of our fighting men are hundreds of thousands of fathers. Over 5½ million mothers of children under the age of 14 years are employed in war plants and service industries. Nearly 3,000,000 boys and girls under the age of 18 years are employed, having left school or carrying combined programs of school and work. As they reach 18, our boys are subject to induction into the armed forces.

For many families incomes have risen as a result of war employment, though many are now required to readjust to a much lower income level as the fathers enter military service. Through National, State, and local effort, and private enterprise, homes have been provided for millions of war workers. Food-distribution policies, including school-lunch programs, have made possible for many children a higher level of nutrition than they have known before. Hospitals, schools, and recreation centers have been provided in many war communities. There has been a great increase in the number of births. The 1942 maternal mortality rate again showed a substantial reduction in maternal deaths. Infant mortality rates in general have decreased although recent figures from some areas show increases. Medical, nursing, and hospital care have been made available during maternity and infancy for the families of men in the four lowest pay grades of our armed forces without cost to the families. Youth themselves have given a great amount of volunteer war service, have brought their needs to public attention in a constructive way, and have worked out, with adult participation, sound leisure-time programs for the teen age. State and local governments have provided means for coordinated planning and action to meet youth needs through public and private effort.

Yet, to an alarming degree, our children and youth are not receiving the care, protection, and educational opportunity which their own and the Nation's welfare and future require. Shortages of doctors, nurses, and health and hospital facilities are affecting the quantity and quality of health protection and medical care, especially in military and war production areas and in many rural areas where shortages existed before the war. This constitutes a serious threat to the well-being of children and the future strength of the Nation. At least a million children are being taught by unqualified teachers replacing those with better preparation. On the other hand, qualified teachers are being dismissed in areas where school enrollment is declining. Educational programs and services have been curtailed. High-school enrollment is down 14 percent. Children are working long hours, at night, at tasks beyond their strength, and often under conditions morally unsafe. Many thousands of children whose mothers are employed lack care or supervision during day or night hours.

Millions of youth, feeling the restlessness, excitement, and anxiety that war brings, lack both effective means of sharing in adult concerns and opportunities for wholesome fun and companionship. Rising juvenile delinquency, causing general concern, is a symptom of widespread failure to meet youth needs.

Girls too young for such responsibility are experiencing maternity, frequently without the protection of an established home, often in a war community where they are strangers. Children are being born under conditions fraught with insecurity. Children in minority groups often are denied essential opportunities generally available to other children in the communities in which they live.

Looking beyond our own borders, we are appalled at the suffering and destruction of children of allied and enemy countries. These shocking realities should strengthen our determination to extend relief to children of war-stricken areas as rapidly as possible, to cooperate to the fullest extent in the relief, rehabilitation, and reconstruction work of the United Nations, to lend full support to the establishment of international organizations for the maintenance of a just and lasting peace, and to do everything possible to make sure that no other generation

of children will have to suffer from the destruction of war.

Beyond these acute problems, affecting the stability, happiness, resourcefulness, and competence of the rising generation, are the problems facing us of transition from war to peace. There can be no date fixed as a dividing line between war and post-war planning, even if it were possible to predict when hostilities would cease. Many families and some communities are already in the post-war period, as men have returned from military service or war workers have lost their jobs. Many breadwinners now in military service will never return to assume their responsibility toward the children dependent on them. Many others will return as permanently disabled veterans, with serious curtailment or complete loss of their earning power. At present affecting only a small proportion of our people, these and many other problems of readjustment will reach millions more even before the fighting stops on all fronts.

The post-war planning now under way must provide for children and youth if victory is to mean opportunity for them to share in building a world based on freedom and justice. We dare not, for them or for our future, risk another generation of transient, idle, frustrated youth, like that of the early years of the depression. Post-war planning must also provide for maintaining the freedom, integrity, and security of the family. All political parties have an obligation to pledge full support of measures needed to assure to all the children and youth of the Nation at least the minimum opportunities required to equip them to take their part in democracy and in the establishment of peace and justice among the peoples of the world.

The Goals for Which We Strive

In the spirit of the Children's Charter in Wartime adopted 2 years ago, the Commission on Children in Wartime renews its call to the American people to take all needed steps to assure to all children of every race and creed full protection amid the devastation of war, and to take thought for their welfare in the period of transition from war to peace. Specifically, the commission recommends:

I. Extension of health service and medical care to assure access to adequate care for all mothers and children, including the following:

a. Provision of health services for infants and young children through the organization of well-child health centers in every community lacking such facilities, and extension of such service when it is inadequate.

b. Development of adequate health and medical-care programs, including health education for school children and employed youth, with extension of school-lunch and nutrition programs, and enlargement of the crippled children's program to include particularly services for children with rheumatic fever and cardiac conditions in all States.

c. Making available public medical-care or health-insurance programs as needed to assure access to adequate care for all mothers and children.

d. Planning for demobilization of medical and nursing personnel in the armed forces, including appropriate provision for further professional training and placement in areas of need; planning for hospital and health-center construction, with provision of funds necessary for operation: and planning for other measures needed to assure adequate distribution of skilled medical and nursing care and adequate hospital facilities for mothers and children in all parts of the country, urban and rural.

II. Regulating child labor and safeguarding youth in wartime employment; planning now for young workers demobilized from industry and for youth leaving school in the demobilization period; developing policies for the post-war period which will assure protection and educational and employment opportunity to youth. Specifically, these goals include the following:

a. Continued emphasis upon and further implementation of the declared policy of the War Manpower Commission to the effect that in most cases youth under 18 can best contribute to the war program by continuing in school.

b. Extension of community programs, developed with the cooperation of management, labor, and the public, for safeguarding youth who are employed in agriculture and in industry on a part-time or full-time basis.

c. Adequate appropriations for full enforcement of Federal and State child-labor laws, with special emphasis upon elimination of child labor under detrimental conditions, for excessive hours, and at night.

d. Planning now for the youth who will be demobilized from industry, through guidance and counseling service; development of educational programs suited to their needs, with student aid as required; retraining and placement in private industry or public employment; broadening opportunities for training through apprenticeship; extending minimum-wage protection for minors; and other youth services as needed.

e. More experiments with guided work-study programs conducted cooperatively by schools, employers, public conservation agencies and camps, to permit youth to experience work appropriate to their age as a planned part of their education.

f. Increased financial support by local, State, and Federal Governments for the further improvement of education without discrimination on account of race, creed, or national origin.

g. Establishment of adequate post-war child-labor and school-attendance standards developed in the light of wartime experience and extending to areas not now fully covered through State child-labor and school-attendance laws and Federal child-labor legislation.

h. Development of policies relating to health, schooling, employment opportunities, and recreation for the post-war period, which will assure to youth opportunity for full development and to the Nation at all times generations of both sexes physically and educationally equipped and morally prepared for whatever service the Nation's safety and welfare may require, whether in peace or in war.

III. Development of community recreation and leisure-time services for young people, with participation in planning and management by youth themselves, including:

a. Full use of school buildings and playgrounds for after-school, vacation, and adult education programs, and extension of school camps.

b. Mobilization of all community recreation resources, with special attention to joint planning by public and private agencies.

c. Development of continuing provision for joint Federal and State services for the stimulation and encouragement of community recreation programs, especially needed in the period of demobilization.

d. Extension of responsibility for planning and management of programs for youth through youth councils and committees, parent councils, and parent-youth community councils.

IV. Safeguarding family life in wartime, during demobilization, and in the post-war period, including:

a. Strengthening and extending special guidance, counseling, and rehabilitation services particularly needed in reestablishing homes disrupted by wartime separations, with due recognition of the spiritual, emotional, and social bases for wholesome family life.

b. Assistance and service to families of men in the armed services facing radical readjustments of income and standards of living.

c. Economic policies designed to encourage production of an abundant supply of goods to meet the needs of families and children, and to provide employment opportunity for all at such wages and under such conditions as will assure an adequate economic basis for family life, with protection against discrimination in employment because of race, creed, or national origin.

d. Extension of the coverage and benefits of social-security programs without residence restrictions.

e. Housing policies and standards directed toward providing every family with decent housing so planned that necessary health, education, recreation, and welfare facilities and services for children are available.

V. Development of State and local public child-welfare programs and the work of private agencies to assure social services to every child whose home conditions or individual difficulties require special attention, including:

a. Extension of child-welfare services, with Federal assistance as needed, to all counties and local areas in all States. Such services should include adequate legal and social protection and care for children whose parents are dead or whose homes are broken, children of illegitimate birth, children who are neglected or delinquent, and children suffering from other social handicaps.

b. Enlargement and improvement of community programs of child care with Federal assistance to State departments of welfare and of education to provide adequate services to children whose mothers are employed.

c. Development of closer relationships between social agencies and schools, health agencies, recreational agencies, courts, and police.

VI. Review and revision of legislative safeguards and standards relating to children in preparation for the 1945 sessions of the legislatures, in the light of these goals for children.

VII. Sharing of the public responsibility for the health, education, and welfare of children by Federal, State, and local authorities, with recognition of the primary responsibility of the State and local units, and the importance of providing Federal funds for local services through grants-in-aid to appropriate State agencies, and with the removal of residence restrictions in the selection of personnel for such programs.

VIII. Provision for the training of professional personnel required for services for children and youth and for the preparation of volunteers to assist in rendering such services.

IX. Increased opportunities for youth to share in the planning and development of programs—local, State, National, and international—for the benefit of youth.

X. Education of parents, youth, and all citizens concerning the importance of providing full security and opportunity for children for the sake of their own happiness and well-being and for the future of the Nation.

The realization of these goals will require the highest order of leadership, substantial sacrifice, and a sustained and coordinated effort on the part of all groups throughout the Nation.

Meeting of New Commission

Keynote for the meeting of the Children's Bureau Commission on Children in Wartime, which took place in Washington, March 17 and 18, 1944, was sounded by Katharine F. Lenroot, Chief of the Children's Bureau. In her report to the commission, Miss Lenroot emphasized that with increasing absorption of the country's manpower into the military forces, "We have a threefold task: We must hold the line now in the face of mounting strains and dislocations by strengthening homes and maintaining services for children throughout the Nation; we must anticipate the problems of the transition from war to peace; and we must lay the foundations for a post-war world in which the needs of children and youth shall be given first consideration."

Leonard W. Mayo, chairman of the commission, presided at the conference and reviewed the objectives adopted by the commission at its first meeting in March 1942 in the form of "A Charter for Children in Wartime," and the

work of the commission during the past 2 years. Mr. Mayo pointed out that one of the most hopeful and significant contributions of the commission has been the close working relations developed with Federal and National private agencies, with various State committees, and with key individuals and groups throughout the country.

Representatives of National organizations in the fields of child health, child welfare, and child labor reported on the degree to which the objectives in the Children's Charter in Wartime have been realized in the Nation. Howard W. Hopkirk, executive director of the Child Welfare League of America, reviewed the needs of children in wartime, including the need in many communities for more foster-family homes, more well-qualified child-welfare workers, more adequate provision for educational leave, suitable facilities for detention and shelter as a preventive of juvenile delinquency, and closer cooperation between the juvenile courts and social agencies such as clinics, public welfare departments, and children's aid societies. The work of the American Academy of Pediatrics for children in this country and abroad was described by the President of the Academy, Dr. F. P. Gengenbach. Mrs. L. W. Hughes, vice president of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, reported on the work of that organization in developing intensified community-activity programs for health, recreation, and vocational safeguards, and day-care programs for children of working mothers, and in seeking to maintain adequate school standards and facilities, to equalize educational opportunities, and to extend parent education. Mrs. Gertrude Folks Zimand, general secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, called for more adequate appropriations for the enforcement of existing child-labor laws, both State and Federal, as the most important single step that can be taken to check the disturbing increase in the employment of minors under conditions that menace health and education.

The Hon. Frances Perkins, Secretary of Labor, addressing the commission, emphasized the need for more varied and more suitable opportunities for educational experience for the youngest wartime workers, who will—rightly—be the first to be laid off during the readjustment period.

One feature of the conference was a youth panel of 12 teen-age boys and girls, through which the commission sought to find out more of what young people themselves are thinking—about living in a war housing area, about leaving school for work in war industries, about jobs for young people after the war, about juvenile delinquency, and about the problems of boys and girls in minority groups. The young people taking part in the panel discussion, which was led by C. B. Loomis, head of the department of sociology of Piedmont College, were invited as youth leaders, members of youth councils, and also as representing city, farm, and small-town youth, school youth, and working youth.

The panel members discussed the needs of youth as they saw them for recreation, education, job guidance, and parental understanding and told some of the steps their own communities are taking to meet these needs through teen-age centers, recreation programs, discussion groups, and combined programs of school and work.

The conference adopted a statement, "Goals for Children and Youth As We Move From War to Peace" (see p. 147), which summarizes present needs, renews the call of the commission to the American people to rally to the protection of children and youth, and sets 10 goals for the transition and post-war periods.

Members of the Commission

Appointed February 1944 for a 2 Year Term

Chairman, Leonard W. Mayo.
First vice chairman, Mrs. Harriet A. Houdlette.
Second vice chairman, Boris Shishkin.
Secretary, Edith Rockwood.

Edith Abbott, Chicago.
Fred L. Adair, M. D., Chicago.
Cyril Ainsworth, New York.
Frederick H. Allen, M. D., Philadelphia.
Mrs. Robert A. Angelo, York, Pa.
Reginald M. Atwater, M. D., New York.
Kenzie S. Bagshaw, Hollidaysburg, Pa.
Leona Baumgartner, M. D., New York.
Mrs. Mary McLeod Bethune, Washington.
Alice Drew Chenoweth, M. D., Louisville, Ky.
Nathan E. Cohen, New York.
William L. Connolly, Providence, R. I.
Paul B. Cornely, M. D., Washington.
Grace L. Coyle, Cleveland.
A. W. Dent, New Orleans, La.
Loula Dunn, Montgomery, Ala.
Nicholson J. Eastman, M. D., Baltimore.
John W. Edelman, Washington.
Mrs. Gladys Talbott Edwards, Denver, Colo.
Marshall Field, New York.
Homer Folks, New York.
Franklin P. Gengenbach, M. D., Denver, Colo.
Willard E. Givens, Washington.
Lester B. Granger, New York.
Mrs. Sidonie M. Gruenberg, New York.
Mrs. William A. Hastings, Madison, Wis.
Marion Hathway, Pittsburgh.
Henry F. Helmholz, M. D., Rochester, Minn.
Mrs. Kate Bullock Helms, Columbia, S. C.
Harold W. Herman, Chicago.
George Hjelte, Los Angeles.
Anne Sarachon Hooley, Washington.
Howard W. Hopkirk, New York.
Mrs. Harriet A. Houdlette, Washington.

Ruth Houlton, New York.
Mrs. Henry A. Ingraham, New York.
Charles S. Johnson, Nashville, Tenn.
Mary Alice Jones, Chicago.
Mrs. Robert M. Jones, Seattle.
Paul U. Kellogg, New York.
Rev. C. E. Krumbholz, New York.
Mary E. Leeper, Washington.
N. S. Light, Hartford, Conn.
Mrs. Clara Savage Littledale, New York.
Leonard W. Mayo, Cleveland.
Oscar L. Miller, M. D., Charlotte, N. C.
Captain Rhoda J. Milliken, Washington.
Broadus Mitchell, New York.
Emory W. Morris, D. D. S., Battle Creek, Mich.
Mrs. Rose Norwood, Boston.
Rt. Rev. Monsignor John O'Grady, Washington.
E. W. Palmer, Kingsport, Tenn.
J. Milton Patterson, Baltimore.
Ellen C. Potter, M. D., Trenton, N. J.
Emma C. Puschner, Indianapolis, Ind.
Grace A. Reeder, Albany, N. Y.
Floyd W. Reeves, Chicago.
Mrs. Horace B. Ritchie, Athens, Ga.
Howard L. Russell, Chicago.
J. Harold Ryan, Washington.
Boris Shishkin, Washington.
DeWitt Smith, Washington.
Roy Sorenson, Chicago.
J. Edward Sproul, New York.
William H. Stauffer, Richmond, Va.
Mrs. Mabel K. Staupers, New York.
Mrs. Faye Stephenson, Cleveland.
George S. Stevenson, M. D., New York.
Mrs. Anna M. P. Strong, Marianna, Ark.
Linton B. Swift, New York.
Felix J. Underwood, M. D., Jackson, Miss.
Joseph S. Wall, M. D., Washington.
J. Raymond Walsh, Washington.
Mrs. Roy C. F. Weagly, Hagerstown, Md.
Herbert D. Williams, Warwick, N. Y.
Mrs. Gertrude Folks Zimand, New York.

A Message From the Surgeons General of the Army and Navy

On March 18, 1944, the Emergency Maternity and Infant Care program for the wives and infants of enlisted men in the four lowest pay grades of the armed forces of the United States will have completed its first year. Approximately a quarter of a million wives and infants will have been given care under the program. More than 90 percent of this number are wives of enlisted men; nearly 10 percent are their newborn infants. Medical, nursing, and hospital care is being made available in Army and Navy installations where it does not interfere with the care of the soldier and where it can be given without increasing existing facilities. Whatever other care is available in the place where the wife and infant are living is being given through the civilian authorities.

Physicians the country over are contributing their medical skill to this wartime program generously and in return for moderate recompense. Hospitals the country over have opened their doors to these wives and their infants making available accommodations where their medical needs can be met adequately, though without luxury care. Nurses the country over are helping in the city and the rural homes and in the hospitals.

All this is being carried out voluntarily by those who are participating in the program. All this is being done in spite of the great shortage of physicians and nurses serving the civilian population—a shortage caused by the entry into the armed forces of thousands of our physicians and nurses.

This program of maternity and infant care for wives and infants of enlisted men is made possible by grants from the Federal Government through the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor and the State health agencies, for the purpose of relieving anxiety among the enlisted men as to how the costs of maternity care for their wives, or the costs of medical care for their infants, will be met in their absence from home while in the armed forces—when, for a great majority, their family income has been lowered materially. The program carried out by the State health agencies brings assurance to the enlisted men that their National and State Governments are doing whatever is in their power to make care available to their wives and infants, that physicians throughout the country are helping.

The morale in the armed forces is being raised and our fighting men go overseas with greater confidence in the security of their families because of this wartime program.

We who are responsible for the health and medical care of the men in the armed forces are grateful to you—physicians, nurses, and hospitals—who are participating in this program of care for the wives and infants of these men. You are sharing with us our normal peacetime responsibility of caring for the families of our men, and so are making it possible for us to give our best efforts to the men themselves.

Your contribution is an invaluable aid to us in the prosecution of the war, and we count on your carrying this program forward in the year to come with the same generous spirit you have shown in the past year.

ROSS T. McINTIRE,
Vice Admiral, M. C., U. S. N.,
The Surgeon General of the Navy.

NORMAN T. KIRK,
Major General, U. S. Army,
The Surgeon General.

State Committees on Children in Wartime

Summary [1]

The Program of State Action for Our Children in Wartime adopted by the Children's Bureau Commission on Children in Wartime in August 1942 suggested as the first step for putting the program into action review of wartime needs of children and of existing resources for meeting these needs. The second step, based upon this review—development of State and community services adequate to meet wartime needs of children—must be taken by the appropriate governmental and voluntary agencies of the States and their local units.

The commission report stated that responsibility for planning, coordination, and leadership should be placed with some representative State group and recommended that wherever practicable this group should be a committee or subcommittee of the council of defense and related to the work of other defense-council committees. In compliance with this recommendation the Children's Bureau has collaborated with the Office of Civilian Defense in promoting the development of committees of State defense councils and, through the State committees, extending similar organization into local communities.

As of March 1, 1944, 21 States were reported to have active defense-council committees concerned with a broad program of review and planning for the needs of children in wartime. In several additional States similar committees have been organized but the contemplated programs have not as yet taken definite shape. In a few other States, cities and other local units have undertaken more or less comprehensive programs without the guidance of a central State committee.

Within recent months impetus has been given to the development of both State and local committees by the program for the control of juvenile delinquency which provided an immediate objective and emphasized the urgency of considering all of the community conditions which tend to create delinquency problems. Most of the State committees are giving special consideration to juvenile delinquency and several have appointed subcommittees to deal with this problem. A common interest in control of delinquency has brought about collaboration with recreation committees and other defense-council committees.

Day care for children of working mothers is a major concern of every State Committee on Children in Wartime except in two or three States where the defense council has appointed a separate committee on day care. In at least 12 States committees undertaking a broad program are giving special attention to problems of child labor, sometimes through a subcommittee. Growing interest in health needs is reported, and definite programs in this field will undoubtedly be undertaken increasingly by State and local committees. Several of the State committees are studying the need for new or revised legislation, especially in the field of child protection.

In general, the State committees include in their membership broad representation of public and private agencies in the fields of health, education, social welfare, labor, housing, and recreation, as well as of racial groups, federations of churches, and State-wide organizations concerned with the welfare of children. In several States in which the original committee membership did not include various interests suggested by the Children's Bureau Commission on Children in Wartime and the Office of Civilian Defense plans are now under way to broaden the representation.

Promotion of community planning and action in behalf of children in wartime is an accepted function of most of the State committees. Usually local committees are organized under local defense councils and include in their membership broad representation of public and private agencies and citizen interest. In a number of States, as has been mentioned, organization of community groups has preceded the development of a State-wide program, and in certain cities existing councils of social agencies have been found the logical organizations in which to center community concern for children.

Oregon State Committee on Child Care, Health, and Welfare [2]

The committee on child care, health, and welfare of the Oregon State defense council began as an advisory committee to help the State public welfare commission coordinate its functions and activities with those of other agencies, Federal and State, in the field. After the second meeting the committee was reorganized as a

[1] By Emma O. Lundberg, Consultant in Social Services for Children, U. S. Children's Bureau.

[2] From remarks by Clyde Getz, Director of Child Welfare Services of the Oregon State Public Welfare Commission, at the Conference on Special Problems of Children in Wartime, Washington, D. C., February 4–6, 1944.

general committee and the membership was extended to include other agencies having responsibilities in the field of child welfare and interested citizen and professional organizations.

The committee includes representatives of the State public welfare commission, State board of health, State department of education, State defense council, Federal Works Agency, War Manpower Commission, United States Employment Service, Federal Housing Administration, a day-care committee, the parent-teacher association, the crippled children's agency, child-health services, the private child-care agencies licensed through the State, the county judges' association, Congress of Industrial Organizations, American Federation of Labor, the council of churches, the mental-hygiene society, American Association of Social Workers, the State Conference of Social Work, State medical society, State nurses' association, State health officers' association, and other organizations; also one of the outstanding Negro leaders in Portland and the State superintendent of elementary teachers' training.

One of the first things to do, of course, was to determine what the functions of this broad committee should be. The committee decided that it would act as a clearing house in planning for coordinated groups and that it would be interested in all aspects of child welfare, but that, because of the great need for child care growing out of employment of women in industry, it would devote its first attention to day care of children. As to its relationship with the various component agencies, the committee stated: "It is clearly understood that under no circumstances are the foregoing functions construed * * * to exercise any administrative function or to interfere with the administrative management or social welfare of the child-care agencies." Although the committee gave its attention first to day care, and its chief attainments have been in this field, it does consider other aspects of child welfare, principally provision for school lunches, the employment of children, and juvenile delinquency.

The first step, of course, was to determine what facilities the various agencies were already providing, what was considered essential in the comprehensive day-care program for the State, and just what part each agency should play in the program. When that was agreed on by the State committee, the decision was referred to the agencies having child-welfare responsibilities and approved individually by their boards.

A statement was then issued as a guide to the various communities in developing a program for the care and protection of children of working mothers.

Next, the committee gave leadership to some of the local communities in organizing committees. It also issued a pamphlet on recommended standards for group care of preschool children, which was distributed to the communities.

One of the functions of the committee was to pass on applications throughout the State for Lanham Act funds for day-care facilities. The most recent activity of the committee with regard to day care was in connection with the Kaiser child-care centers. The committee met with Mr. Kaiser and various representatives of the Kaiser Shipyards to try to secure their cooperation in the use and support of existing community facilities and in extending those facilities.

The function of the committee in connection with school lunches was a very minor one. There were already a committee on nutrition and a civilian-defense committee with a subcommittee on school lunches. The committee on child care, health, and welfare met with the chairmen of those committees. There was a similar relationship with other committees in regard to employment of children on farms.

The Governor's committee on youth participation was responsible for development of youth programs, including farm-work programs. The function of the committee on child care, health, and welfare was to learn about the programs and to help in setting up standards. At the request of the committee on youth participation it made definite recommendations concerning standards to safeguard the welfare of children employed in agriculture.

The most recent development is the one pertaining to juvenile delinquency. Some time ago three of the State defense-council committees interested in child welfare met on the suggestion of the State director of civilian war services to consider the whole problem of juvenile delinquency. A joint committee was appointed with representatives of the committee on youth participation, the State recreation committee (which up to that point was concerned primarily with developing recreation facilities for service men), and the State committee on child care, health, and welfare. Before they really had an opportunity to function in that field, the Governor appointed a committee on juvenile delinquency, which included about 35 members representing various groups. The personnel of the Governor's committee was entirely different from that of the committee already functioning. To bring about some coordination the chairman of the Governor's committee on juvenile delinquency was made a member of the committee on child care, health, and welfare and that committee in turn offered support and backing to the Governor's committee.

One of the functions of the State committee is to assist communities in organizing local committees. Committees have been organized in 10 counties. As the State committee was a civilian-defense committee, it was necessary to organize the local committees through the procedure to be followed in organizing any committee under the Office of Civilian Defense.

An executive secretary was provided for the State committee for several months through the State public welfare commission. The salary was paid from child-welfare-service funds most of the time, and for a very brief period through funds allocated to the States from the President's Emergency Fund. There is no executive secretary at present, and it is a question whether a new person will be appointed, because of the very serious personnel situation in the State.

The usefulness of a State committee on child care, health, and welfare as a clearing house, as a planning and coordinating body, or even as a forum, has been demonstrated, I think, by our experience. Furthermore, we have found that the success of State and local committees depends primarily upon leadership in the State and in the various localities and upon the readiness to move forward. Pressure to organize and to organize in accordance with a specific pattern that has been conceived by someone outside the locality or State is not always successful, because we cannot move any faster than the State or the local committee is ready and willing to move. However, advisory and consultation services from the outside are extremely helpful.

Alabama Committee on Children in Wartime[3]

The State day-care committee, organized in Alabama in April 1942 at the request of the State defense council, was converted in December 1942 into the committee on children in wartime, thereby becoming an official committee of the State defense council. Local advisory committees on day care, upon request, took similar action.

The State committee on children in wartime is composed of representatives from the following agencies: State department of education, State department of public health, State defense council, State extension service, United States Employment Service, the labor division of the State department of industrial relations, War Manpower Commission, Farm Security Administration, American Association of University Women, State Congress of Parents and Teachers, American Legion, American Legion Auxiliary, State Federation of Women's Clubs, State department of public welfare, and Alabama Conference of Child-Caring Institutions and Agencies. The State committee meets monthly, timing its meetings in connection with those of the State defense council.

An effective channel of coordination of community services to children has resulted from the establishment of the State committee on children in wartime with 16 local committees functioning. Local committees follow somewhat the same pattern of representation as does the State committee, but they include also the county sheriff, the police, juvenile-court judges, ministers, and interested citizens.

In the early stages of organization the State committee was especially helpful in coordinating the responsibilities of the State department of education and the State department of public welfare in relation to the day-care needs of children of working mothers. The State committee approved plans submitted by the State departments of education and public welfare to the United States Office of Education and to the Children's Bureau when Federal funds were made available for the cost of the services of day-care consultants. The State committee currently approves all applications for Lanham Act funds for the operation of day-care projects.

The member of the State committee representing the United States Employment Service has furnished information on the employment and anticipated employment of women in war industries. Representatives from the health department have kept the State and local committees informed on medical and hospital services available to wives and infants of enlisted men and financed by Federal funds through the State department of health.

When the problem of farm-labor shortage assumed large proportions in the State in 1943 and it began to be apparent that employment of children to gather crops would be necessary in certain areas, the State committee laid the ground-work for collaboration by the State extension service, the State department of health, the State department of education, the labor division of the United States Employment Service, and the State department of public welfare. Standards of care were quickly set up and the employment of 14- to 17-year-old boys in gathering crops in specific areas was accomplished with some assurance of protection and safeguard. The State committee on children in wartime appointed a continuing subcommittee to work on the establishment of

[3] From remarks by Mrs. Judith Hall Gresham, Director of the Bureau of Child Welfare, State Department of Public Welfare, at the Conference on Special Problems of Children in Wartime, Washington, D. C., February 4–6, 1944.

policies and standards of care in any anticipated use of children necessitated by the farm-labor shortage. Representatives from local committees have reported at several State committee meetings on conditions in their communities.

The State committee has been especially helpful in stabilizing and directing local interest and concern in the problems of juvenile delinquency prevailing throughout the State.

Difficulty has been experienced, however, in maintaining close coordination between the State committee and the local committees on children in wartime. County defense councils have emphasized in varying degrees the importance of the county committees on children in wartime, and the local committees therefore in some instances function without proper relation to the defense councils.

The State committee seeks to keep in touch with all local committees by requesting periodic reports, by routing useful material to the county committees, and by having State committee representation at important local committee meetings. The minutes of the State committee meetings are mailed to the county committees. The State committee is preparing an information bulletin on all services available to children through agencies represented on the committee.

Because of the need for and the interest in recreation, county defense councils have promoted subcommittees on recreation in the counties. Some 13 local recreation programs have been set up. However, they are not county-wide and often do not include facilities for children. The State committee on children in wartime is recommending that local committees on children in wartime affiliate themselves more closely with the recreation committees.

There is no question that outside help has been needed to meet the problems intensified by war conditions. On the other hand, it is interesting to observe the cycle of successful planning and coordination. In many communities there is still confusion and ineffective planning. It is, however, in those communities where outside help has been conditioned by and suffused with local acceptance and attitudes that effective planning and coordination exist.

Washington Committee on Children in Wartime[4]

In the State of Washington there has been need for some time for coordination of activities on behalf of children. It was not, however, until the war brought it into bold relief that we did much about it. We knew only too well that the recommendations of the White House Conference needed to be followed up in our State, and we did start a follow-up program. Then, it was decided that community planning on a State basis, at least, would be done under the auspices of the State defense council for the duration of the war. The chairman of the State White House Conference committee was made a member of the group, which later came to be known as the State committee on children in wartime. It seemed logical that the State defense council should be the unit through which the committee worked, as it had been concerned with civilian protection and had served as a coordinating agency, bringing together various State departments in other activities.

We felt that it was extremely important that at least one paid worker be assigned to the committee. There was precedent for existing State agencies to pay for personnel assigned to the defense council. So it was rather natural to assign someone paid from the child-welfare-service funds of the State department of social security to the State defense council to serve as secretary of the committee on children in wartime. The secretary worked very closely with other members of the State defense-council staff in interpreting the job of State planning for child welfare.

The State committee began by being a day-care committee, because day care was the immediate need. The representation on the committee included schools, health, welfare, labor, industry, the War Manpower Commission, private and public welfare agencies, civic and service groups, and the parent-teacher association.

The purpose of the State committee was conceived to be one of planning, of coordination; it was not to become an agency in itself, but was to coordinate the work of other agencies. Its function is to know what is happening to children, to do fact finding, and to make recommendations as to action and encourage the development of local community planning groups.

It seemed to us that it was not too important whether or not the local groups were defense-council committees. For example, in Seattle, which of course has a very well-organized council of social agencies, it was natural for the local committee to be a committee of the council of social agencies. If communities did not have any pattern of association or community organization, it seemed that the defense-council pattern was as good as any.

We also found that committees starting as day-care committees, as other problems become

[4] From remarks by Bernice E. Scroggie, Supervisor of Division for Children, Washington State Department of Social Security, at the Conference on Special Problems of Children in Wartime, Washington, D. C., February 4–6, 1944.

evident and the need for more and more coordination on a broader front is recognized in the community, develop a tendency to move into a wider committee activity.

As other needs of children in the State became evident the State committee broadened its activities to include planning for children who were going to work in the fields. I think 30,000 children went out on agricultural programs last year. And then, later on, came the program of juvenile protection, as we became concerned about children becoming delinquent. The program that has been carried out so far has been pretty much on these three fronts: Social welfare, planning for children employed on farms, and juvenile protection.

In day care, I believe our program has been similar to that in Oregon. That is, the job was first of all to work out relationships among the various departments—schools going into group care, State and county welfare departments having responsibility for development of private family care for children and counseling service. The last count showed 45 public nurseries or child-care centers in schools and some 55 extended school services in the State. Foster-family care has gone more slowly. I think we have between 200 and 250 foster-family homes in the State.

In regard to children in agriculture we became aware of the problem and took it upon ourselves to try to do something about it as long ago as the spring of 1943. In our State there is no one agency with legal responsibility for protection of children who are going to work on farms, and it did seem logical for this committee to be concerned with these youngsters. It was no new thing for children to work on farms in the State of Washington. It had been done altogether too much and too long. What the committee tried to do was to develop a group of people (a subcommittee on children in agriculture, as it turned out) who cared about what happened to children to promote the use of the guides set up by the United States Children's Bureau. The subcommittee also encouraged local committees in the communities where large numbers of children were working to observe what really was happening to children and to attempt to maintain concern about the hours of work and working conditions.

The other field in which there has been some activity is that of juvenile delinquency. We have tried to steer around the phrase "juvenile delinquency," but it is in all the newspapers. The committee was concerned about the situation, and did some talking about it. But before they had talked very long the Governor became concerned about the delinquency situation and asked representatives of all government agencies having anything to do with protection of children to get together with him. We did so and talked about what was needed, which seemed to be more coordination and planning in the field of juvenile protection. It was a matter of each agency's not knowing what the other one had to offer. The people who came together were from the State department of education, the State department of welfare, the State police association, the State judges' association, the State sheriffs' association, the State prosecutors' association, the State patrol office, the State department of children's institutions, and the county commissioners' association.

The Governor suggested that we all go back and write down what each one of us should be doing about the protection of children and send it in, and that he would have a subcommittee appointed to work on it. The groups did send in reports of what they thought their agencies should be doing about juvenile protection in wartime, and a little pamphlet which outlines those ideas was produced over the name of the committee on children in wartime of the State defense council. After the first drafting was done and the government agencies represented got together again, it was recognized that since there was already a committee on children in wartime set up to do some community planning and coordinating, this was the medium through which they should work. Each one of these government agencies then sent the pamphlet to its local constituents with the suggestion that they get together with the other folks who were doing things for children in their own communities and see who was doing what and how it could be done most effectively.

This stimulated much more committee activity, and so we had, in some places where committees had begun originally as day-care committees a great surge of interest in juvenile protection and requests for coordination rising out of this problem. There are now some 30 committees on children in wartime all over the State. Some 15, I believe, are fairly active, the others are less so. We have seen a few concrete results that make us a little hopeful. We shall probably see some that will make us not quite so hopeful.

This is just the beginning. But if we can capture this interest we shall have not only a pattern for working together in the defense council, but a pattern for working together which, we are hopeful, can be carried on even after the war.

Combating Epidemics of Poliomyelitis

By A. L. Van Horn, M. D., *Assistant Director for Crippled Children*, and A. J. Lesser, M. D., *Regional Medical Consultant, Division of Health Services, U. S. Children's Bureau*

The provisional 1943 figure for cases of poliomyelitis reported to the United States Public Health Service—12,401—indicates that the incidence in 1943 was one of the highest since 1912. In only 2 other years has the number of reported cases been greater; in 1916 the number of reported cases was 27,363, and in 1931 it was 16,686.

Several Factors May Influence Fluctuations.

It should be understood that several factors—separately or in combination—may influence the fluctuations from year to year, such as more complete reporting of cases, inclusion of more abortive and nonparalytic cases, differences in the virulence of the virus or in resistance of individuals. With the recent widespread interest in provisions for the early care and treatment of the patient with poliomyelitis and with greater emphasis being placed on the recognition of nonparalytic cases, it was not surprising that the number of reported cases increased sharply during the past year.

The unusual number of cases was reported chiefly from the Southwest and the west coast, with Illinois and Connecticut the exceptional States east of the Mississippi River. The largest number of cases in any State was reported from California—2,343. The second largest number, 1,644, was reported from Illinois, where most of the cases occurred in Chicago. Texas, with a total of 1,260 cases, was third highest in the number reported. Kansas, New York, and Oklahoma followed with 779, 749, and 564 cases, respectively. The eight States extending from Texas and Louisiana up through Iowa and Nebraska had more than 3,000 cases reported, or approximately one-fourth of the total number of cases reported from all the States.

State Agencies Take Increased Responsibility.

Since 1936, with the development and extension of State services for crippled children under the provisions of the Social Security Act, State agencies administering these services have taken an increasing responsibility in the care and treatment of children with acute poliomyelitis. In view of the fact that approximately 20 percent, or about 70,000, of the 350,000 crippled children listed on State registers are known to be crippled as a result of acute poliomyelitis, it is a responsibility of the State agency to see that children afflicted with this disease are provided with adequate care and treatment during the acute, subacute, and convalescent phases. The experience gained by State agencies during periods of epidemics is invaluable in the coordination and development of State services so that during subsequent epidemics a more efficient plan of action can be followed in meeting the needs of the child with poliomyelitis.

Opportunity for Exchange of Experience.

With a view to giving an opportunity for exchange of experience gained by States that had suffered especially in the epidemic of 1943, crippled children's agencies in three States, Oklahoma, Kansas, and Texas, suggested that a conference be held to consider the problems that arose during the epidemic. As was reported in *The Child* for March 1944, such a conference was held, February 23 and 24, at Oklahoma City, Okla., in cooperation with the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, by the Oklahoma Commission for Crippled Children, Joe N. Hamilton, Executive Secretary; the Kansas Crippled-Children Commission, Rollin A. Raymond, Secretary; and the Division of Crippled Children, Texas State Department of Education, J. J. Brown, Director.

Administrative Methods Reviewed.

The purpose of the conference was to exchange information and review the administrative methods used by the various States in dealing with the recent epidemic of poliomyelitis in that area; to discuss the development and use of adequate facilities and services for the care and management of poliomyelitis patients, and to review the methods for coordinating the activities of various public and private agencies concerned with the problem. More than 80 persons attended the conference, including representatives from Federal agencies, National organizations, State university medical schools, State health departments, State crippled children's agencies, State societies for crippled chil-

dren, and numerous practicing physicians. States represented were Arkansas, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas.

Subjects covered during the conference included basic planning for development of facilities and services for care; diagnosis and reporting; provision for care of patients; equipment and supplies; functional responsibilities of official and voluntary agencies; and financing.

Among the various points that emerged during the discussions were the following:

Need for Better Methods of Reporting.

It was generally agreed that there is need for improving the methods used in reporting cases of poliomyelitis, and that reporting by telephone and telegraph should be used freely in order to obviate unnecessary delays in arranging for the care of individual patients. Objectives to be sought in any scheme of reporting should be to discover every case of poliomyelitis; to locate all known contacts; to bring to bear all known epidemiological control measures; to offer a means by which every patient afflicted with the disease can be provided with adequate medical and hospital care; and finally, to acquire basic scientific information in order to have a better understanding of the disease.

The conference gave recognition to the need for close cooperation between the family physician and the public and private agencies concerned, in assuring early recognition of the disease and prompt reporting, and in planning for adequate medical and hospital care for the individual patient.

Apparent Lack of Uniformity in Criteria for Diagnosis.

The apparent lack of uniformity in the criteria used for diagnosis was discussed, and attention was called to the relatively large proportion of cases observed during epidemics in which a mistaken diagnosis of poliomyelitis is made and to the phenomenal recoveries from pseudoparalytic manifestations that are frequently observed in such patients. It was pointed out that a diagnosis of poliomyelitis must never be considered absolutely proved in the absence of positive findings in the spinal fluid.

Reports indicated that the practices followed by hospitals and health agencies with respect to isolation techniques in the care and management of poliomyelitis patients are not uniform. The consensus was that much remains to be learned regarding the communicability of the disease, but that until isolation techniques can be based upon sound principles it would be desirable to follow the usual practices with regard to any pediatric patient when first admitted to a hospital. Attention was called to the need for special technique in dealing with the stools of poliomyelitis patients, since the presence of the virus in stools has been demonstrated frequently.

It was suggested that public agencies work out agreements with hospitals whereby such agencies would purchase hospital care for patients requiring isolation techniques at the same cost rate as that established for other patients for whom hospital care is being purchased by the public agency.

There was general agreement that hospitals have a community responsibility in making available adequate facilities for the hospitalization of patients with acute poliomyelitis.

Pediatrician and Orthopedist Share Responsibility.

Medical care and management of the child with acute poliomyelitis, it was felt, should be a joint responsibility shared by the pediatrician and the orthopedist. All professional personnel engaged in providing direct care and supervision of patients with poliomyelitis should be well trained in their respective professional fields. When special techniques are to be employed in the care of patients with poliomyelitis the physician responsible for the care of the patient should be thoroughly familiar with such techniques, and the nurses and physical-therapy technicians rendering direct bedside care to the patient should be adequately trained in them.

Adequate Care Possible in Home.

It was pointed out that in selected cases adequate care can be provided in the home, especially in urban areas where the public-health-nursing service is prepared to give instruction in bedside nursing and skilled supervision under medical direction. There was general agreement, however, that for the child residing in a rural area hospital care should be provided in order to ensure adequate care.

Several members of the conference discussed the use of volunteer workers, nurses' aides, and medical students in various capacities during an epidemic. Recruitment procedures for obtaining the services of skilled professional personnel were reviewed. Dr. Foard McGinnis, Medical Director, the American National Red Cross, explained the activities of that organization in assisting States during periods of epidemics, and Jessie Stevenson, Consultant in

Orthopedic Nursing, Joint Orthopedic Nursing Advisory Service, commented upon the development of a roster of qualified nurses and physical-therapy technicians. Miss Stevenson also reviewed recent developments in plans for strengthening the basic orthopedic-nursing training of nurses and also the advanced training courses.

Much of the discussion regarding provisions for care of patients and the various types of equipment and supplies used centered around the use of hot packs in the treatment of the disease. It was reported that many of the temporary measures used during the early stages of the epidemic were soon modified and improved upon so that in most instances an efficient method was worked out. Attention was called to the fact that much still remains to be learned regarding the use of various forms of heat in the treatment of acute poliomyelitis.

The part played by official and voluntary agencies during periods of epidemics was commented upon by many members of the conference. It was clearly evident that there is great need for closer coordination and an increase in joint planning among all agencies concerned if the facilities and services of such agencies are to be used for the greatest benefit of the patient afflicted with poliomyelitis. Until such planning is worked out at the State and local levels, there will continue to be confusion, duplication, and dissipation of effort on the part of the agencies concerned.

The subject of financing brought up the question of eligibility for care, and there appeared to be general agreement that no obstacle should be raised to medical and hospital care for a child found to be in need of such services. Funds used in the three States were derived from several sources, including Federal and State appropriations and funds contributed by the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis.

On February 23, at a session held at the Crippled Children's Hospital, under the chairmanship of Dr. Tom Lowry, Dean of the University of Oklahoma School of Medicine, Dr. D. H. O'Donoghue, orthopedic surgeon and member of the hospital staff, gave a résumé for the 28 visiting physicians of the cases of poliomyelitis treated at the hospital during the recent epidemic. Many patients were still under treatment in the hospital, and an opportunity was given to observe the techniques and procedures used there in the care and management of poliomyelitis patients.

In general, the conference offered an excellent opportunity for a full discussion of many of the preplexing problems which have confronted numerous agencies in dealing with epidemics of poliomyelitis. Perhaps the most important lessons that emerged from the conference were that we still have much to learn regarding the disease and the care and management of the patient with poliomyelitis, and that there is urgent need for closer coordination of the interest and activities of official and voluntary agencies concerned with the problem. It would seem that conferences such as this, held on a local, State, or regional level, would offer unusual opportunity for such agencies to get together in many sections throughout the country and work out a joint plan of action to be followed during epidemics of poliomyelitis.

BOOK NOTES

Inadequate Diets and Nutritional Deficiencies in the United States; their prevalence and significance. Report of the Committee on Diagnosis and Pathology of Nutritional Deficiencies, Food and Nutrition Board, National Research Council. Published by the National Research Council, National Academy of Sciences, Washington. Bulletin No. 109. November 1943. 56 pp. 50 cents.

This report brings together not only results of dietary surveys reported during the past decade but also a considerable amount of previously unpublished material, with much of the data recalculated and reclassified for the sake of comparison. These surveys revealed that dietary inadequacies, as judged by the recommended standards of the National Research Council, are widespread among the population of the United States and indicate that deficiency states of varying degrees are common.

On the preventive side, says the report, it is evident that the production of sufficient food should be maintained, that more effective distribution of proper food is needed, and that diet education must be intensified and extended. On the corrective side there is need for detection and therapeutic treatment of deficiency states. Among the steps in the direction of disseminating the new diagnostic methods among the medical and public-health professions the report includes "introduction of adequate courses on nutrition, particularly its clinical aspects, into medical schools."

Child Care and Training, by Marion L. Faegre and John E. Anderson, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1943. Sixth edition. 314 pp. $2.50.

In preparing the sixth edition of this well-known book, the authors have revised the chapter, "Eliminative and other early habits," and have brought up to date the list of recommended books for children.

Endorsement of Standards for Part-Time Employment of School Youth

Large numbers of school youth under 18 years of age are now being employed both in war production and service occupations, sometimes in ways not conducive to sustained production.

In order to provide for the utilization of the labor of school youth without endangering their health, welfare, or school progress, the War Manpower Commission, the Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labor, and the U. S. Office of Education of the Federal Security Agency, have issued a "Statement of Policies and Standards Governing the Nonagricultural Employment of In-School Urban Youth Under 18 Years of Age."

As agencies directly concerned with the production of war goods, we endorse this statement of policies and standards and recommend that all employment of school youth be in accordance with it. We believe that observance of the conditions recommended in the statement will result in the increased efficiency of these young workers, will promote their most effective utilization as a source of labor, and will at the same time safeguard their health and permit satisfactory school progress.

Signed by:

WAR DEPARTMENT
James P. Mitchell, *Director, Industrial Personnel Division*

NAVY DEPARTMENT
Ralph A. Baird, *Assistant Secretary*

MARITIME COMMISSION
E. S. Land, *Chairman*

WAR PRODUCTION BOARD
D. M. Nelson, *Chairman*

March 13, 1944.

A limited supply of reprints of this statement will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington 25, D. C.

CONFERENCE CALENDAR

Apr. 20–May 3 International Labor Organization. Twenty-sixth annual conference, Philadelphia. Permanent headquarters: Montreal.

Apr. 29–May 6 National Boys and Girls Week. Twenty-fourth annual observance. A program to bring to the attention of the community the problems, interests, and recreation of youth.

May 7–14 National Family Week. Sponsored by Protestant, Catholic, and Jewish religious organizations.

May 10–12 National Tuberculosis Association. Chicago. Permanent headquarters: 1790 Broadway, New York.

May 17–21 American Physiotherapy Association. Twenty-second annual conference, New York. Permanent headquarters: 720 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

May 19–22 National Probation Association. Cleveland. Permanent headquarters: 1790 Broadway, New York.

May 21–27 Family Welfare Association. Cleveland. Permanent headquarters: 122 East Twenty-second Street, New York.

May 21–27 National Conference of Social Work. Cleveland.

May 22–24 National Congress of Parents and Teachers. New York. Permanent headquarters: 600 South Michigan Boulevard, Chicago.

May 24 National Child Labor Committee. Cleveland. Permanent headquarters: 419 Fourth Avenue, New York.

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THE CHILD

Vol. 8 May 1944 No. 11

In This Issue . . .

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Child-Welfare Progress in Ecuador

Cleveland's Program for Children of Working Mothers

I. L. O. Proposals for Post-War Youth

ITED STATES
PARTMENT OF LABOR
ILDREN'S BUREAU

JUN 15 1944

THE CHILD

MONTHLY BULLETIN

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The Children's Bureau does not necessarily assume responsibility for the statements or opinions of contributors not connected with the Bureau.

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UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY

CHILDREN'S BUREAU

KATHARINE F. LENROOT, CHIEF

If a Child Has Heart Disease or Rheumatic Fever

By Betty Huse, M. D., *Special Consultant in Medical Services for Crippled Children, U. S. Children's Bureau*

IN COMMON with most other medical conditions, rheumatic fever and rheumatic heart disease present problems that can be met only if many skills and resources in addition to the strictly medical techniques are utilized. If a child has rheumatic fever it is obvious that considerable adjustment of his whole pattern of living, and that of his family as well, may be necessary if he is to accept and benefit fully from the prescribed medical treatment, which usually includes a long period of rest in bed. Frequently a great deal of help must be given him to attain the desired end. It is perhaps not so obvious but it is equally true that the provision of diagnostic services is not an exclusively medical problem. Indeed the determination of the correct diagnosis for a child with a heart murmur or with vague aches and pains is a very difficult technical medical problem, and to meet it the physician needs experience in the care of children, sick and healthy, as well as experience in cardiology and in the interpretation of laboratory procedures. There are, however, many other aspects to the provision of diagnostic services. Let us look at some of the aspects that come to the attention of the State crippled children's agencies providing services to children with rheumatic fever or heart disease.

First of all, a good history of the child and his family is essential. It may be important to know whether other members of the family have had rheumatic fever, whether the child was once a "blue baby," whether the family situation might lead the child to seek attention through complaining of aches and pains, whether the child might wish to stay home because he does not like school, whether, if the child presents symptoms of acute disease, he has been exposed to other diseases which are sometimes confused with rheumatic fever—such as undulant fever, or tuberculosis. The parents may know and may give the answers to these questions, but often outside help in getting the answers is badly needed. The State agencies have called for help from the family physician, the hospital and clinic records, the medical-social worker, the public-health nurse, the epidemiologist, the school physician, the school teacher, the social agency, and other sources.

Now the clinician makes his diagnosis on the basis of the history, the physical examination, and the laboratory findings. But the matter is far from ended at that point. The child and his family must accept and act on the diagnosis, and so must all the individuals and agencies that have to do with the child. Suppose the child is found to have active rheumatic fever; care must be given him in a hospital or a sanatorium or a convalescent home or his own home. The State rheumatic-fever program will provide the necessary care, but the child and the parent must be willing to participate in the plan of treatment. We all know how difficult it is for any one of us to make up his mind that he is sick enough to take a week or so off and go to bed, especially in a hospital. How much more difficult it is to look forward to many months of rest in bed! Careful explanation is given by the physician but this may not be enough. The medical-social worker or the pub-

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lic-health nurse or someone else in whom the parents have confidence, such as the priest, may be called on to help interpret the situation to the family.

Or suppose the child is found to have minimal rheumatic heart disease with no active rheumatic infection at the time of examination. The usual reaction of the parent and the child to this diagnosis is undue anxiety about the heart disease and at the same time not enough concern about the possible recurrence of rheumatic fever. The diagnosis must be carefully interpreted therefore to the child and his family, so that they will understand clearly that the child should be encouraged to lead an active life, restricted by his own limits of fatigue rather than any arbitrary amount of exercise. They must at the same time understand the urgent need for keeping the child under medical supervision, maintaining his general health at the highest possible level through satisfactory diet, appropriate clothing, decent housing, good health habits, and avoidance of exposure to infection, particularly infection of the upper respiratory tract.

The diagnosis must also be interpreted to the public-health nurse who is to help supervise the child's health and hygiene. It must be interpreted, too, to the social agency that may be called upon to help the family improve its housing or its food budget. One State medical-social worker, on the basis of a study of the diets of several rheumatic children whose families have been receiving public assistance, has interested the State department of welfare in studying the whole question of whether the present assistance budget is enough to provide an adequate diet.

The diagnosis must be interpreted to the school teacher, the school nurse, the playground supervisor, and the school physician so that they will realize, for example, that walking up steps is usually not harmful to a rheumatic child, but that an epidemic of colds in the schoolroom is extremely dangerous for him. This interpretation may also have to be taken to the department of education in an effort to get rid of certain policies and procedures which make it difficult to control epidemics of upper respiratory infections in schools. We know that, in some States, funds for individual schools are granted on the basis of pupil-days' attendance and this has created a general tendency among the teachers in such States to discourage children from staying home from school on account of colds. If children are to be protected against school epidemics of upper respiratory infections, policies such as this in the school system must be brought to light and steps taken to change them.

In at least one State the significance of the diagnosis was explained to the secretary of the local housing agency in an effort to get better housing for the families of rheumatic children.

Now, suppose the child is found to have no heart disease and no rheumatic fever. That, you might think, would be an easy diagnosis to interpret. The State agencies, however, have not found it to be so easy. Not infrequently a diagnosis of heart disease has previously been made by the family physician who is going to continue giving medical care to the child and his family. In one State an expert diagnostician was sent into a small town in which an epidemic of rheumatic fever had been reported by the local physician. The State consultant found that nine children who had been kept in bed for several months to a year actually had no rheumatic heart disease and showed no evidence of ever having had rheumatic fever. That was a ticklish situation, but the consultant handled it so well that the children were restored to normal living habits with the consent and understanding of the local physician. In another State about 25 percent of the children who were sent to the diagnostic clinic by local physicians had been told previously that they had heart disease. In that State every effort was made to persuade the local physicians to come to the clinic with their patients. Thus the conflicts in diagnosis were handled quite informally with the local physicians, who learned a good deal about the diagnosis of heart disease.

Besides the problem of explaining the diagnosis to the physician the problem of getting the child and the family to relinquish a previous diagnosis of heart disease is sometimes difficult to solve. Some families and some children are

unable or unwilling, for a variety of reasons, to give up the fears, restrictions, and privileges that go with a diagnosis of heart disease. A thorough knowledge of the family situation and great patience and skill in dealing with the difficulties are necessary in order to deal with this type of situation. The State medical-social workers have had to deal with many such cases, using not only their own skills but also many sources of information and help within the community.

The State crippled children's agencies that provide services to children with rheumatic fever or heart disease are becoming increasingly aware of the complexities of the problems involved in diagnosis as well as in other services to these children. Basically the problems involved in hospital care, sanatorial care, care of the sick child in his own home or in a foster home, follow-up care, and so on, have great similarity to those discussed in connection with diagnostic services. The State crippled children's agencies show that they recognize their responsibility to provide all the necessary services by enlisting the efforts not only of their own staff members but also of every other individual, group, or agency that can contribute to this end.

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• INTER-AMERICAN COOPERATION •

Child-Welfare Progress in Ecuador[1]

By Anna Kalet Smith
Office of the Chief, U. S. Children's Bureau

The movement for the organization of child-welfare work on a national scale, which has been developing in the American Republics in recent years, is evident in Ecuador, and one of the first steps in that direction was the enactment of the Minors' Code in 1938.

Minors' Code

The Minors' Code enacted in Ecuador, like those in other American Republics, places on the Government the duty of providing physical and moral protection for dependent and neglected children and indicates the necessary action. In order to provide this protection the Government was to establish a system of agencies and institutions, each with its definite functions. These agencies are the National Child-Welfare Council (Consejo Nacional de Menores), the Bureau of Public Assistance (Asistencia Pública), the Bureau of Public-Welfare Institutions (Departamento de Hogares de Protección Social), and the juvenile courts. General charge of the work was given to the National Department of Public Welfare (Ministerio de Asistencia Pública y Previsión Social). A month after the enactment of the Minors' Code the members of the National Child-Welfare Council were appointed by the Secretary of Public Welfare and the Council began to operate. This was soon followed by organization of the other agencies.

National Child-Welfare Council

The National Child-Welfare Council consists of seven physicians, lawyers, and teachers, chosen for their familiarity with child-welfare problems. The Council formulates plans for the setting up of child-welfare agencies and institutions throughout the country; it decides on their policies and programs of work; it supervises their work and administers Government appropriations and private gifts for child welfare. It is also the Council's function to supply information on child-welfare work in

[1] Based partly on a communication from Dr. Rafael Vallejo Larrea, Undersecretary of Social Welfare, Ecuador.

Ecuador to individuals and organizations in that country and elsewhere.

Bureau of Public Assistance

The Bureau of Public Assistance has charge of homes for destitute women who are expectant mothers or mothers of young children, mothers' lunchrooms, child-health centers, and milk stations; also it provides attendance at childbirth by trained persons and medical care for mothers and children in the home or in a hospital.

Bureau of Public Welfare Institutions

The Bureau of Public Welfare Institutions is the executive branch of the National Child-Welfare Council. It carries out the Council's decisions and maintains and supervises the work of the following institutions, which are placed by law under its control: Seven institutions for young children, one of them in Quito, the capital; two kindergartens, both in Quito, for children between the ages of 4 and 7 years; two institutions, one of them in Quito, for children of school age, where maintenance and primary instruction are given; three institutions for boys above school age, in which, in addition to maintenance, training is provided in tailoring, carpentry, printing, shoemaking, and other trades, and an institution for the training of boys in farm work; two detention homes for children brought before the juvenile courts; and two vocational-training institutions, one of them in Quito, for girls who are dependent or who present behavior problems.

The Bureau also maintains three rest homes, one of them in Quito, open the year round, for children physically below par. The average stay at these homes is 6 months. On account of the good results obtained the Government is planning to establish several more such homes.

Medical and social services for children in public welfare institutions are provided by a special division of the Bureau, which has a staff of physicians, nurses, and social workers.

Juvenile Courts

Juvenile courts have been established in Ecuador under the Minors' Code. There were 15 such courts in November 1943. Each court has jurisdiction over the entire province in which it is situated. The personnel of each court includes a lawyer, a physician, and a teacher. The juvenile courts hear cases of children alleged to have violated laws or local ordinances, and of those who present behavior problems or who are neglected or mistreated. The law concerning the juvenile courts of Ecuador reflects the progressive tendencies of these laws in other American countries, and according to its underlying principle the child brought before the court is to be regarded as a victim of circumstances, who should be given protection by the State, with an opportunity for rehabilitation. Consequently, the juvenile court, before making its decision, is expected to obtain information on the child's physical condition, his personality, his social environment, and the causes of his conflict with law or society. Imprisonment and other penalties for youth, permitted before 1938, have therefore given way to preventive and educational treatment. This is done mainly through the previously mentioned institutions and through special "children's polyclinics."

At present one such polyclinic is working in connection with the juvenile court of Quito and another with that of Guayaquil. At these clinics each child brought to the court is given a physical and psychological examination, and his case is thoroughly investigated. The results of the study of each case, together with the recommendations, are submitted to the court, to assist the judges in making the decision. In cities without such clinics the duty of studying the cases is assigned by the court to selected individuals.

All the child-welfare agencies and institutions established under the Minors' Code are maintained by means of appropriations from the National treasury; the National Child-Welfare Council is authorized by law to accept private donations also.

First National Congress on Nutrition, Cuba

The First National Congress on Nutrition, organized by the Cuban Medical Association, was held in Habana, September 20–30, 1943.

The Congress, considered an outgrowth of the United Nations Conference on Food and Agriculture, held in Hot Springs, Va., in the spring of 1943, was attended by more than 600 delegates, representing 70 organizations of physicians, scientists, teachers, employers, industrial workers, and others.

El Mundo, Habana, September 20–October 2, 1943.

Cleveland's Program of Community Service for the Care of Children of Working Mothers

By Henry L. Zucker
Secretary, Welfare Federation of Cleveland

The Welfare Federation of Cleveland, which is our council of social agencies, set up an emergency child-care committee in July 1941 at the request of several persons who felt that the time was appropriate to begin to lay plans for the care of children of working mothers. These persons during the last war had seen large numbers of mothers go to work, leaving their children under haphazard neighborhood and home supervision, or placing them in one of a number of substandard child-care centers which sprang up throughout the community. Our committee began with the usual battery of surveys—mostly through schools, settlement houses, and case-work agencies—and these revealed as early as the fall and winter of 1941 a serious neglect of children of working mothers. Much of this was a peacetime (or, shall we say, an all-time) neglect, but it was being aggravated by a steady movement of mothers into the labor force. In order to assist mothers and to help determine the extent and location of the problem we set up an information office in the Welfare Federation. This was the beginning of our emergency child-care office, which now has 16 employees. Persons requesting day care for children were referred to one of eight Community Fund nurseries, or to one of nine licensed private nurseries (run for profit). Some mothers presented problems best met by another type of agency, such as a family-service society or a child-placing agency. A substantial number presented day-care problems which could be met only through an extension of community services. This was the beginning of our emergency child-care centers and our foster-family day-care program.

These new services were financed at first by the parents' fees, substantial contributions from the Welfare Federation and the Cleveland Foundation, smaller gifts from a number of sources, and the free use of space, heat, light, and so forth, on the part of the host for the center—usually a settlement house, a church, or a housing project. On May 15, 1943, the Cleveland Board of Education received a grant of Lanham Act funds from the Federal Works Agency, which since then has been the major source of financing. Local contributions have increased, but the largest part of our expansion has been made possible through Federal funds. There were 10 emergency child-care centers prior to May 1943 and there are now 29, all but 2 of which are financed with the help of Lanham funds. The program is still expanding, and an application is now on file with the Federal Works Agency for a grant to the Welfare Federation to open several new centers in the industrial suburban areas. The reasons for the continued expansion now are chiefly the induction of fathers and the fact that the day-care idea has begun to "take" as a result of 2 years of work.

To complete the organization picture, the council for civilian defense became a joint sponsor of the emergency child-care program in January 1942; the emergency child-care committee enlarged and broadened the base of its membership; the board of education set up jointly with the emergency child-care committee a Lanham Act advisory committee to advise its newly appointed administrator; and the emergency child-care committee set up a number of subcommittees to work out standards and advise on various phases of our program. Neighborhood advisory committees were organized to help in the establishment and management of the centers. At first it was planned to incorporate these groups into autonomous boards of trustees. With the centralization of the Lanham Act program under the board of education, the committees were retained in an advisory capacity. These committees have been

[1] Presented at the U. S. Children's Bureau Conference on Special Problems of Children in Wartime, February 4–6, 1944, Washington, D. C.

a source of strength in our program, because they have sensitized our program to the needs and the characteristics of the neighborhoods in which we are working and because they have helped to inform the neighborhood as to the program. There is a very close working relationship between the Lanham administration at the board of education and the emergency child-care committee. The head of the emergency child-care office is directing supervisor of the Lanham program under the board of education's administrator, and the staffs—while not a single unit—work very closely together.

Advantage of Joint Community Planning in Development of Over-All Program.

The outstanding feature to me of our experience is the very great advantage of joint community planning in the development of an overall program with a wide range of services for working mothers. That is to say, our program draws strength from the cooperation and joint planning of the workers in the fields of education, health and welfare, labor, management, employment procurement, the church, and a variety of lay interests. Conversely, to the extent that divisive forces enter into the picture—jealousies among agencies (local, State, or Federal), misunderstandings between fields of work, policy decisions handed down to local groups which are contrary to the best judgment of the local group—to the extent that these forces operate, the effective operation of the program is impaired.

Need For a Completely Coordinated and Wide Range of Services.

A most compelling reason for a centrally planned and unified community program is the need for a completely coordinated and wide range of services. The most important of these are the information and counseling services, group care, foster-family day care, and a number of auxiliary services such as homemaker service, 24-hour care, and health services, and a program of public education and publicity directed toward the use of all these services. The ability to draw easily on all these services is basic to a sound community program. Furthermore, unity in the program encourages efficiency of operation because it provides the best possible coverage in facilities for the community's investment in time and money. It is productive of the best service to mothers and children because it makes available a clearly defined and easily accessible service. This program, which is new to most mothers, becomes very confused when it is interpreted from several different sources, which may indeed have different basic philosophies relating to the purpose of the program and to the method of operation.

During 1943 some 2,500 parents inquired at the emergency child-care office about the care of their children. In about half these cases the mother already was working; the rest were planning to work. About 1,100 parents applied for emergency child-care services through consultants who service 16 preschool centers on assignment from the Institute of Family Service. In addition, the Cleveland Child Health Association, which lists all preschool facilities in Cleveland, made 281 referrals directly to facilities.

These parents are referred to an emergency child-care center, or enrolled in one, or referred to a foster day-care home or another appropriate community service, or—and this represents a large number—determine after an interview either that they do not need a community service at that time or that one is not available to meet their need. A substantial group are referred for 24-hour care or another type of community service that is not day care.

Noticeable Increase in Total Applications Within a Month.

Within the last month there has been a noticeable increase in total applications and in the proportion of wives of men inducted or about to be inducted into the armed forces. These women as a group are very much in need of day-care services for their children. Many of these families live in suburban areas where we are just beginning to establish child-care centers.

Our information and counseling services have a variety of purposes. They represent a source of information and referral to all day-care resources and related services in the community. They represent an opportunity for mothers to think through the implications of day-care placement for the child and other members of the family, as well as other aspects of employment for the mother. They serve as an intake medium for the preschool centers. They are the most exact indicator in the community for establishing the need and location of new child-care facilities, because they reflect actual requests from parents. They discover social needs requiring the use of the services of other agencies and effect referrals to these agencies in a manner conducive to the use of the services. They offer continued assistance to parents and consultation to teachers in the centers relative to the child's adjustment and progress. Our all-time day nurseries feel that this is especially helpful in their program. And lastly, they are a valuable source of information as to the social

and health implications of the employment of mothers of small children. They are, in effect, a strategic crossroads between the theories and experiences relative to working mothers, and should be the source of valuable research on this subject.

Preschool and School-Age Centers Main Resources.

The preschool and school-age centers constitute the main resources for the care of children of working mothers. There are now 29 emergency child-care centers in operation, with a total capacity of about 630 preschool and 660 school-age children. Enrollment on January 22, 1944, was 416 preschool and 407 school-age children. These emergency centers are in addition to 8 Community Fund day nurseries with a capacity for about 500 children and 9 licensed private nurseries with a capacity for about 200 children. These older nurseries have few vacancies. The figures quoted do not include a large number of play schools and other part-day facilities set up under a variety of auspices, which are primarily for the purpose of preschool education or the convenience of the parents.

The purpose of the emergency centers is to provide as good substitute care as possible for children while their mothers are employed. This means 8 to 10 hours of care a day for preschool children, and several hours of care a day for school-age children. The preschool centers are open between 6:30 a. m. and 7 p. m. and the school-age centers at lunch time and after school on school days and all day Saturday and during vacation periods. A few open prior to school hours.

Staff Trained in Nursery-School Techniques.

In the preschool centers, the teaching staff is usually trained in nursery-school techniques. The quality of staff is satisfactory, though only a small percentage are graduates of qualified nursery schools or have equivalent training. An in-service training program and technical supervision from the central staff help to maintain teaching standards. The health program is supervised by a trained public-health nurse, and the food program by a trained nutritionist. Social service is available through referral to the consultants. Volunteers assisting in the centers are almost all given a training course. In general, the same things may be said of the school-age centers, except that the program is largely recreational in character and the health program is not so intensive.

The centers are located in housing projects, churches, settlement houses, and made-over store fronts and houses. Only one center is located in a school. Generally speaking, the most satisfactory physical facilities have been in the housing projects and in a made-over store front. It is difficult to find satisfactory space, and in a few neighborhoods this has made it impossible to meet a substantial demand for service.

It is an interesting phenomenon that invariably a child-care center takes several months to build its attendance to capacity or near-capacity. This is true even where the center has been carefully located to meet the expressed demands of large numbers of working mothers, and where the center is well promoted in the neighborhood. Centers which are carefully prepared usually fare better than the others, but it nevertheless takes several months for the center to "take."

Large Amount of Turn-Over in Centers.

Another interesting observation is the large amount of turn-over in the centers. For example, a typical center which was open during all of 1943 cared for 86 children at some time during the year, of whom 48 were withdrawn. In another center, the present enrollment of which is 26 children, 13 or exactly half have been in the center less than 5 months, the stay of the others ranging from 5 to 19 months. In all, 750 preschool children were served between May 15 and December 1, 1943, of whom 343 withdrew during this period. In this connection it is interesting to note an Associated Press dispatch of February 1, 1944, which quotes Paul McNutt, Chairman of the War Manpower Commission, as saying that "our only remaining substantial labor reserve consists of women, but about 8 women leave the labor market for every 10 who enter it." It is our experience that many mothers find out that even with the help of an emergency child-care center, working long hours and keeping house is too difficult or is unsatisfactory for them and their families.

Day Care in Licensed Private Homes.

Foster-family day care is designed to provide daytime care for children of working mothers in a licensed private home. In Cleveland such homes are licensed by the State, upon recommendation of the emergency child-care office. The State welfare department has assigned staff to the emergency child-care office to assist with this work and with our counseling services, financed through child-welfare-services funds under the Social Security Act.

The fee is arranged between the parent and foster parent and usually runs between $7 and $10 a week. The emergency child-care office lists all licensed homes and acts as a consultation and referral service. A case worker from the office

supervises the homes which are now in use, paying at least one visit in the first month of placement and at least one each 3 months after that. Both mother and foster mother are encouraged to inform the case worker of any problems which arise.

During 1943 about 225 children received care in foster-family day-care homes. At the end of the year, there were 126 children in 72 homes, with unused capacity for 218 children in 78 licensed homes. During 1943 we lost 131 licensed homes with a capacity for 257 children, chiefly because the foster parent went to work, became pregnant or ill, or left town.

Many Placements for Less Than a Month.

The large amount of turn-over in this program is emphasized by the fact that in 1943 almost one-third of the placements were for less than 1 month. On October 1, 1943, there were 133 children in foster day-care homes. During the previous 12-month period 116 additional children who used this facility withdrew from the service. Chief causes of turn-over are the mothers' giving up jobs, moving out of town, arranging care with relatives, or transferring the child to a child-care center.

Mothers generally prefer group care to a foster-family day-care home. It is our opinion that the chief reasons for this are the substantially lower fee in the center, the ready acceptance by the parent of the trained supervision available at the center, the impersonal aspect of the center as against the potential personal rivalry involved in the child's foster-parent relationship, and the greater acceptability by the parent of group care because she sees so many other mothers placing a child in the group.

Foster Day Care a Supplementary Service.

It is our experience that foster day care is largely a supplementary service, best adapted to care for children under 2 (too young for group care); for families of two children where one is below center age; for part-time care where the mother works on an irregular or short schedule; for children who should not be in a group because of a special health or emotional problem; and as a substitute for group care before a center is established, or in a neighborhood where a center is not planned. It should be pointed out that in our program foster-family day care is far less costly to the community and more costly to the parent than group care.

We attach considerable importance to the health and nutrition aspects of our program. A trained public-health nurse and a trained nutritionist carry the supervisory responsibility here. They have the advice and assistance of the city health department, the Academy of Medicine, and the nutrition department of the Welfare Federation.

Emphasis on Prevention of Disease.

In the centers, the emphasis is on prevention of disease, through an entrance examination, immunization, and daily inspection. The center has an isolation room, and enforces quarantine regulations. There are appropriate first-aid provisions and printed instructions about what to do in case of accident. The nurse works with the head teachers to make them more aware of health defects, so that the parent may be made aware of the necessity for corrective measures. In the school-age centers it is assumed that the schools have the primary responsibility for the health of the child, but conferences are arranged so that the health supervisor, the school nurse, and the head teacher can review the child's record and thus sensitize the head teacher to health problems. Occasionally a working mother who does not respond to the school nurse's call to discuss a child's problem is reached through the head teacher at the center.

Physical Examination Given Cooks and Helpers.

Cooks and helpers are given a physical examination, including a chest X-ray, and instruction on personal cleanliness and handling of foods. The nutrition supervisor assists in meal planning, preparation of foods, and storage of foods, is helpful on rationing problems, and handles the storage, distribution, and use of foods from the War Food Administration.

In the foster day-care program, each home is certified by the city health department, which checks for typhoid and tuberculosis history, and requires vaccination of foster parent and child and immunization of the child. All children in the home must be certified by a physician to be free of communicable diseases and to have been immunized.

We understand that several cities have experimented with 24-hour care of children of working mothers. It is the opinion of the Cleveland office of the War Manpower Commission that at no time has our manpower shortage been sufficiently acute to justify our disregarding the best interests of young children. In view of this statement and because of our opinion that 24-hour care should be used as a solution only where the family presents a serious social problem, we have developed no emergency program for 24-hour care. Mothers requesting this service are referred to the permanent child-placing agencies for evaluation in terms of child protection.

Similarly, we have developed no night-care services because we feel that night care is too difficult for the child, and in many cases for the mother, on any basis other than round-the-clock care. If our employment situation ever becomes so acute as to warrant sacrificing the interests of the children we might have to reconsider our policy in this regard.

Homemaker Services Not Included.

Our program does not encompass a homemaker service, and a very few families needing this service have been referred to the family-service agencies. Their housekeeping service is designed to keep families together in the absence of the mother through the use of a substitute homemaker. This is a very desirable all-time service, which makes a real contribution toward maintaining the unity of the family. It is especially useful for large families. Seventy-two families, involving 282 children, were provided with a homemaker service during 1943 by these agencies. We question the extent to which this service can meet the needs of children of working mothers, as it seems doubtful to us that this service, which is so costly financially and in terms of manpower, should be utilized unless there are compelling personal reasons in addition to the fact of the mother's working. It is, of course, a valuable service for widowed fathers.

Disappointment Concerning Extent of Use of Centers.

There is general disappointment throughout the country because of the limited extent to which emergency child-care facilities have been utilized. This disappointment is felt especially keenly by persons who overemphasized the manpower aspects of the child-care problem. Some school officials, too, who are accustomed to dealing with large public-school enrollments, feel something of a letdown in relation to this program.

My feelings on this subject are mixed. On the one hand, I have a basic admiration for the independence of the average American home, which still takes care of its own without outside help. It is difficult for me to accept the estimate of the War Manpower Commission in Detroit, for example, that for every 7 employed women there is 1 child who needs community-sponsored care. I just cannot imagine that there are 35,000 children in Cleveland who need community care. On the other hand, there is ample evidence, by almost anybody's standards, that a substantial number of children in Cleveland are suffering deprivations because of the employment of both parents, and for many of these children the emergency child-care program would offer some compensation. It seems to me that several steps can be taken to cut the edge of the disappointment over relatively small enrollments and at the same time to sell the program more effectively.

First, those responsible for the program at all levels of government should analyze it more carefully and determine the basis for its operation. I believe they would then think of it less as a means of releasing womanpower for war work and more as a service to children whose mothers, for good, bad, or indifferent reasons, are at work. They would pay more than lip service to this Nation's official policy that mothers of small children should not be recruited for work, and at the same time be ready to assist some mothers who want or need to work.

Public Should Be Informed About Program.

Secondly, the administrators of child-care programs should carry out an extensive program of public education relative to what constitutes good child care, and a thoroughgoing public-relations campaign to take the program to the public. This is not to imply that in a few months we can compensate for the shortcomings of our long-time job of parent education. It does mean that we can show the advantages of our program so clearly that the parents want it, and advertise it thoroughly so that they know about it. After all, most mothers never before heard of a day nursery or nursery school, and many who have heard of it are not sure they like it.

Need For Good Case Finding.

And lastly, there is the need for a careful and thoroughgoing job of case finding. Case finding for the emergency child-care program would carry us frequently and regularly to our employers of womanpower, to the labor unions, and to the United States Employment Service, and it would take us to the schools, the courts, and the social agencies.

It is my belief that these three things—a sounder conception of the emergency child-care job, a better program of public education and public relations, and an intensive program of case finding—would go a long way toward the maximum utilization of emergency child-care facilities for the purposes for which they are intended.

In closing, I should like to call attention to a few observations occasioned by our experience with the care of children of working mothers:

1. The general lack of appreciation among parents of what constitutes good child care is thrown into bold relief, and should stimulate

religious leaders and leaders in the fields of education and health and welfare to develop a positive, comprehensive, and extensive program of training for parenthood. It is a sad commentary that in Cleveland thousands of parents who are biologically ready for parenthood have shown themselves to be psychologically unready for it.

2. The further evidences of the resiliency and strength of the family unit should strengthen our determination to foster sound family life. The adjustment of children in the centers shows that for many children nobody outside the home can substitute adequately for what the child misses in his family.

3. This newest example of the basic similarity of purpose in the fields of education and health and welfare points up the urgency of developing a full partnership between these fields. Unfortunately, the emergency child-care program has also demonstrated the fact that superficial differences between the fields can be blown up to the point where they are real barriers to effective cooperation.

4. The demonstration of citizen interest in this newly extended field of social endeavor should renew our faith in the desirability of citizen participation in programs of social welfare. More than 100 volunteers worked 16,000 hours in our centers in 1943. About 200 more worked in neighborhood committees or central committees to help plan the program or to give it the plus values we so frequently ignore. This is indeed a demonstration of democracy in action.

5. Lastly, the demonstration of the very great advantage of the union into a single movement of the positive forces of the community to meet a war-created problem should convince us more firmly than ever that the modern community needs a permanent device for the organization of its agencies of health and welfare and related community services and interests.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington 25, D. C.

Advisory Committee on Leisure-Time Services

The first meeting of an Advisory Committee to the Children's Bureau on Leisure-Time Services for Children was held in Washington on March 13, 1944. This committee, which was appointed by the Secretary of Labor in February 1944, functions as a subcommittee of the Advisory Committee on Social Services to Children, and will give special attention to the recreational needs of children in centers of war activity, in rural areas, and in small towns; to the needs of adolescents, children with special problems, children in institutions, and children in minority groups; to the development of agency programs to meet these needs; and to the relationships of State and local child-welfare services with leisure-time programs for children.

Roy Sorenson, chairman of the leisure-time committee, presided at the meeting, which gave consideration to the interest of the Children's Bureau in leisure-time services for children and to the needs of children for recreational programs and existing programs for meeting those needs and examined emerging plans for leisure-time services in relation to community and State planning, juvenile delinquency, and youth problems, now and in the post-war period.

Juvenile-Court Statistics Now Available on Request

Juvenile-Court Statistics, 1940–42 (Social-Statistics Supplement to Vol. 8, No. 6, of *The Child*), and a preliminary statement on juvenile-court statistics, 1943 (mimeographed) are now available, and single copies may be had free by writing to the Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington 25, D. C.

BOOK NOTE

GOD'S RASCALS, by Ralph W. Whelan. National Conference of Catholic Charities, Washington, D. C., 1943. 38 pp. 35 cents.

This booklet tells a story of a 15-year-old delinquent boy and a Catholic priest. It shows each in a process of change, finding in each other an appreciation of the worth of a human being—the necessary basis for constructive change in behavior. The way in which an organized social agency and a volunteer can work together effectively with the same family is illustrated in the story. The booklet is written in popular style for the benefit of persons who wish to give individual help to a child in need.

I. L. O. Proposals for Post-War Youth[1]

The keynote of a recent International Labor Organization report, "Manpower Mobilization for Peace," is sounded in its opening quotation from President Roosevelt's address at the final sitting of the Conference held in 1941:

> There can be no real freedom for the common man without enlightened social policies. * * * In the last analysis, they are the stakes for which democracies are today fighting.

This report on manpower mobilization for peace has a special significance in the light of the twenty-sixth session of the International Labor Conference convening in Philadelphia on April 20, 1944, as two items on the agenda include demobilization problems that will affect young workers. These are: "Recommendations to the United Nations for present and post-war social policy," dealing particularly with such matters as conditions of work, social security, child labor, paid holidays, prevention of accidents, industrial relations, industrial hygiene, and labor welfare; and "The organization of employment in the transition from war to peace."

Although an acknowledged basic war aim of the United Nations is freedom from unemployment and from want, the report points out that these ends will not be secured unless definite practical planning is done now:

> Now is the time to prevent the return of the unemployment which was symptomatic of the ill-health of our pre-war way of life and to plan for full employment of all our human and material resources after the war. * * * Let us start by accepting the idea that it is *possible* to abolish unemployment, that it is *possible* to have useful work for all who wish it, but that we must do some hard cooperative planning and work before our resources can be reorganized to service human need.

As background information, the basic employment changes which are now taking place throughout the world are analyzed, with particular emphasis on the number and characteristics of the 60 millions of men and women in the armed forces; the tremendous upswing in the general level of employment; the changes in the make-up of the labor force, with their implications for the post-war labor force; and the shifts of millions of men and women from peacetime pursuits to war work.

Of special interest to persons working with youth is the section of the report dealing with post-war plans for young people. It is pointed out that the large numbers of youngsters who have left school early to take up work in war industries are, in fact, war vocational casualties. With little general education and little vocational preparation, their position in the post-war employment market will be particularly unfavorable. In every country it will be essential to give these young people full opportunity to develop their skills.

Their needs, it is said, will be almost exactly the same as those of many of the young demobilized servicemen and women, and the needs of both groups can be met within the same general program and by the same machinery.

Such a program envisages, first, great expansion and improvement of the whole system of public vocational guidance for young workers. This has always been inadequate and in most countries has not been improved during the war.

> This is the time to overhaul vocational-guidance machinery and to make it an integral part of education and youth-placement work. The opportunity should not be lost. Vocational guidance is the first and one of the most important steps in a constructive program for youth training and employment after the war. Every young person should have the opportunity, and perhaps also the duty, of discussing his plans for the future with a qualified public vocational-guidance officer.

Second, the special needs of these out-of-school young people must be met in the reorganization of general education that is now under way to some extent in almost every country.

For those who can take up their educational careers where they were dropped, and wish to do so, some kind of student-aid program such as is already planned in many countries to help demobilized members of the armed forces is suggested. Great Britain, indeed, is making

[1] Man-Power Mobilization for Peace. International Labor Office, Montreal, Canada, 1943. 78 pp. 25 cents.
The Organization of Employment in the Transition From War to Peace. Report III, International Labor Conference, Twenty-sixth Session. International Labor Office, Montreal, Canada, 1944. 179 pp.

some of these facilities available also for war workers.

For many who have held down men's jobs and to whom the ordinary schoolroom atmosphere would not be of much help, part-time classes and short residential courses for out-of-school youth might be worked out, utilizing the new techniques of general adult education and workers' education.

A third educational possibility is the development, through cooperation of Government agencies and management and labor groups, of full apprenticeship opportunities in many industries. This is desirable because many industries, especially those now classified as nonessential, will be left after the war with a shortage of highly skilled craftsmen. More skilled workers and technicians will be needed. The youngest group of today's workers should have an opportunity for apprenticeship, although some of them may be a little older than the usual age for apprentices or may need more money than is usually paid to entering apprentices.

A fourth program looks toward the development of in-plant training and upgrading to increase the skills of young workers who entered employment during the war. This sort of "industrial internship" would require the collaboration of Government, management, and labor. Instead of producing all-round skilled craftsmen as the apprenticeship system aims to do, its object would be to train and upgrade young workers into more skilled or specialized jobs or to train them for supervisory and technical employments.

In addition to these avenues of education and training, the report points out the need for expansion of all kinds of youth-training programs and centers of the general types that were set up before the war to salvage young people from depression unemployment, with adequate wages or allowances.

Turning to another and very large group of young persons with special problems in the post-war period, the report points out that those who are not yet in employment should be prevented from taking up full-time work too soon.

> The first step in combating the evils of juvenile employment is to up-grade and enforce the minimum age at which young people may enter employment. In many countries there is a tendency to raise the minimum working age just as soon as war emergency conditions make such a move possible. * * * Raising the age for compulsory school attendance should be considered primarily as a step towards improving the welfare, education, and training of the youngsters. But in the immediate post-war period, it might also be considered as a step which would, at the same time, help to ease the employment transition.

With respect to the employment of young workers the 1944 report proposes the following:

> (1) The raising of the minimum age for leaving school and being admitted to employment to 15 years without delay, and to 16 years at the earliest possible moment, with maintenance allowances for parents during the required additional period of compulsory education.
>
> (2) Student-aid programs to enable young persons with ability to attend technical schools or higher-education schools on a full-time basis.
>
> (3) A vocational-guidance interview and registration at employment office to be required for every young person leaving school and intending to undergo practical training or take up employment.
>
> (4) In connection with this guidance interview, a free preemployment medical examination and a certificate of fitness for specified types of employment, serving as a basis for periodical reexaminations.
>
> (5) Promotion of apprenticeship and resumption of interrupted apprenticeships with reexamination of apprenticeship programs.
>
> (6) Encouragement of employers to introduce programs of systematic in-plant training.

The principle is set forth that men and women whose higher training and education has been interrupted by war service, whether in a military or civilian capacity, should be enabled to resume and complete their training and education subject to continued proof of merit and promise, and should be paid allowances, regardless of need, while completing their training and education. Emphasis is also placed on the further training of vocational teachers and instructors, on the expansion of training and retraining in all countries, and on the coordination of training and retraining service on a national, regional, and local basis.

Both these International Labor Office reports envisage a widened concept of public employment and vocational-guidance facilities, available to all who need them. The employment service must play the central role in finding new jobs for veterans both of the war and of the labor front, help young workers into suitable jobs, and prevent employment discrimination. It must stay as strong as it is now where it is strong, and go on expanding where necessary. There is need also for development of specialized branches to deal with the placement of special groups of workers. It must coordinate and guide all agencies working in the manpower field and help to direct and supervise training and retraining agencies.

Finally, it is pointed out that planning to meet these post-war problems is not merely a job for technicians and experts. There must be public discussion about employment plans, and this planning should begin now if we are to have a successful manpower program for peace that will carry through the transition period and into the future post-war world.

Youth-Serving Agencies Cooperate in Safeguarding Nonfarm Youth in Agriculture

Nine national youth-serving organizations in March 1944 announced their intention of cooperating with the Children's Bureau and other Federal agencies concerned in maintaining adequate working standards and living conditions for young people in farm-work programs. The announcement is made in a memorandum addressed to Marvin Jones, War Food Administrator, which enumerates the ways in which these agencies believe, on the basis of 1943 experience, that they can be of service.

The organizations represented are Boy Scouts of America, Boys' Clubs of America, Camp Fire Girls, Girl Scouts of America, Jewish Welfare Board, National Catholic Welfare Conference (Youth Department), National Federation of Settlements, Young Women's Christian Associations, and Young Men's Christian Associations. Incomplete reports show that in the 1943 season six of these organizations operated 115 work camps with an enrollment of 11,647 young people, were concerned in 6,039 day-haul programs including 54,262 young people, and placed 67,249 individuals on farms. On the basis of this experience these youth-serving organizations—

"* * * heartily subscribe to the standards that are being recommended by the Children's Bureau, as minimum requirements, and will urge our local units to use as resources for such standards the Children's Bureau publications, 'Guides to Successful Employment of Nonfarm Youth in Wartime Agriculture,' 'Boys and Girls Employed in Agricultural Programs in 1943' from *The Child*, February 1944, and 'When Boys and Girls Work on Farms.'"

In order to encourage local representatives of Federal agencies to give attention to the personal values involved for young people, even in the midst of the pressure to provide the necessary man-hours of agricultural labor, the memorandum requests that the attention of National, State, and local representatives of the Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture be called to the need for safeguarding youth in summer farm-work programs and, specifically, that:

1. Where county youth labor assistants are employed for placement and supervision of students enrolled in the Victory Farm Volunteers program, they be men with a point of view that is concerned both with the individual boy or girl and with meeting food-production goals.
2. The county agents be reminded of the dangers involved where local enthusiasm or need threatens to exploit young, "soft," untrained workers.
3. Local authorities be encouraged to include representatives of community agencies and of the public-health and welfare departments on the committee which plans procedure and sets up health and welfare standards.
4. Local authorities make use of the assets in the groups and leadership of the community youth-serving agencies.
5. The county agent and his staff be urged to explain and interpret to farmers the attitudes, needs, and potentialities of these nonfarm youth, and to enlist their understanding cooperation.

An interagency committee on youth in wartime agriculture, with George B. Corwin as chairman, and headquarters at 347 Madison Avenue, New York 17, N. Y., has been set up to further the cooperation of local units of these nine national youth-serving organizations in maintaining approved standards in farm-work programs for youth for which they are responsible.

BOOK NOTE

BEHIND THE CHILD LABOR HEADLINES. Annual Report of the National Child Labor Committee for the Year Ending September 30, 1943, by Gertrude Folks Zimand, General Secretary. New York, 1943. Mimeographed. 35 pp.

The annual report of the National Child Labor Committee (419 Fourth Avenue, New York) for the year ended September 30, 1943, has been issued by Gertrude Folks Zimand, who succeeds the late Courtenay Dinwiddie as general secretary of the organization. Entitled "Behind the Child Labor Headlines," this report uses local news reports of vastly increased child employment, both legal and illegal, to illustrate the magnitude and complexity of the wartime child-labor problem.

"Conflicting forces are in evidence," the report points out. "Manpower needs versus children's needs; a growing competition between industry and the schools; attempts to enforce laws and pressures to suspend them; concern for children's safety on the one hand and, on the other, increasing instances of heart-rending accidents. Through it all runs one outstanding fact: During the second year of America's participation in World War II a veritable avalanche of young people under 18 years has been pouring into industry."

One section of the report deals with Federal programs and policies as related to war manpower, agriculture, school and work projects, the Fair Labor Standards Act, and other subjects. Other sections discuss activities of the National Child Labor Committee in the fields of public education, farm security, and State legislation, and the problems of the immediate future and the post-war period.

Summer Courses

Mills College, Oakland, Calif., which from September to June is a women's college, admits both men and women to its summer session, June 30 to August 6. The child-development department will offer intensive work in: Care of the preschool child, extended-school care, operation of wartime child-care centers, and so forth. The session includes also the third Family Life Education Workshop, June 30 to July 22, sponsored by the American Institute of Family Relations.

Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee, will give a 6-week course beginning June 12, in methods of dealing with children of preschool age.

The Child Welfare Research Station, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, will offer the following child-welfare courses during its summer session: Group care of children, practice in group care of children, current problems in preschool education, social groups and leadership, psychology of adolescence, child psychology, research in child welfare, and child study and parent education. (June 12 to August 4.)

Louisiana State University School of Social Welfare, Baton Rouge, will offer a 3-week, a 6-week, and a 9-week summer term, all beginning June 12. Among the graduate courses is one on children in foster care; among the undergraduate, on the child and the community.

The Wellesley School of Community Affairs, Wellesley, Mass., which is planned by Wellesley College to continue for three successive summers, will have for its 1944 topic Cultural Differences Within the American Community.

The school will offer three successive units of study in separate but related 2-week periods, June 29 to July 13, July 13 to July 27, and July 27 to August 10, designed for teachers, youth leaders, personnel officers, trades-union educational secretaries, vocational-guidance counselors, community and social workers, local governmental agents; group leaders, both lay and clerical; voluntary board members of civic associations; and members of interracial committees.

Teachers College, Columbia University, is planning to give students an opportunity to teach and administer nursery-school and kindergarten groups under the supervision of experienced teachers. The course is offered to teachers and directors of child-care centers, nursery schools, and kindergartens and to students in closely related fields. (June 9 to July 1.)

New York School of Social Work, Columbia University, will hold three series of summer institutes dealing with various aspects of social-work practice, with particular emphasis on the needs and problems of the war and post-war periods. (Series A, July 10 to 21; Series B, which includes "Current Problems in Child Welfare," July 24 to August 4; Series C, August 7 to 18.)

Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, N. Y., will conduct its Summer Institute for Family and Community Living July 12 to August 9. Special programs in child care and child welfare will be held for social workers, public-health nurses, kindergarten teachers, nursery-school teachers, directors of child-care centers, and teachers of after-school programs.

The School of Applied Social Sciences, Western Reserve University, Cleveland, will hold an institute on programs for adolescents in wartime, May 29 to June 10, and a seminar on interracial and intercultural problems in group activities, May 29 to June 3. This special summer program in recreation and group work will be in addition to the regular summer session (first term, June 19 to August 5; second term, August 7 to September 22). Leonard W. Mayo, Chairman of the Children's Bureau Commission on Children in Wartime, and Helen Rowe of the Children's Bureau staff will be on the faculty.

Public Health Nursing for April 1944 gives a list of summer courses for public-health nurses, which includes maternal health, infant and preschool health, dental-health education, personnel and guidance, and so forth.

CONFERENCE CALENDAR

May 21–27 Family Welfare Association. Cleveland. Permanent headquarters: 122 East Twenty-second Street, New York.

May 21–27 National Conference of Social Work. Cleveland.

May 22–24 National Congress of Parents and Teachers. New York. Permanent headquarters: 600 South Michigan Boulevard, Chicago.

May 24 National Child Labor Committee. Cleveland. Permanent headquarters: 419 Fourth Avenue, New York.

June 6–8 American Nurses' Association. Biennial convention. Buffalo, N. Y. Permanent headquarters: 1790 Broadway, New York.

June 12–16 American Medical Association. Annual session. Chicago. Permanent headquarters: 535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago.

June 20–23 American Home Economics Association. Chicago. Permanent headquarters: 620 Mills Building, Washington.

June 27–July 3 Christian Youth Conference of North America. Lakeside, Ohio. For further information: The International Council of Religious Education, 203 North Wabash Avenue, Chicago.

July 4–7 National Education Association of the United States. Eighty-second annual meeting. Pittsburgh. Permanent headquarters: 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington.

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UNITED STATES
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
FRANCES PERKINS, SECRETARY

CHILDREN'S BUREAU
KATHARINE F. LENROOT, CHIEF

• SAFEGUARDING THE HEALTH OF MOTHERS AND CHILDREN •

Maternal and Infant Mortality in the United States, 1942

By Marjorie Gooch, Sc. D.,

Chief, Health Statistics Section, Division of Statistical Research, U. S. Children's Bureau

Note.—The data on which this article is based are taken from reports of the Vital Statistics Division of the Bureau of the Census.

The 1942 continuation of the decline in the maternal and infant mortality rates is particularly encouraging to all persons interested in public health, in view of the fact that these rates are generally accepted as sensitive indexes of public-health conditions.

rate for the country as a whole, and 23 States had infant mortality rates higher than that for the country as a whole.

As figures 1 and 3 show, the general trend of both maternal and infant mortality has been downward since 1930 for both Negroes and whites. Although the rates declined more sharply for Negroes than for whites from 1941 to 1942, the 1942 maternal mortality rate for

Table 1.—*Live births by race; United States and each State, 1942*[1]

Area	Total	White	Negro	Other races	Proportion of Negro to total (percent)	Area	Total	White	Negro	Other races	Proportion of Negro to total (percent)
United States	2,808,996	2,486,934	307,777	14,285	11.0	Montana	11,735	11,026	12	697	.1
						Nebraska	23,676	23,381	202	93	.9
Alabama	71,136	45,222	25,891	23	36.4	Nevada	2,782	2,605	15	162	.5
Arizona	12,664	11,281	316	1,067	2.5	New Hampshire	9,173	9,160	12	1	.1
Arkansas	42,680	32,618	10,050	12	23.5	New Jersey	81,709	76,254	5,429	26	6.6
California	154,567	148,483	2,681	3,403	1.7	New Mexico	14,129	13,497	104	528	.7
Colorado	23,566	23,172	248	146	1.1	New York	244,802	233,795	10,505	502	4.3
Connecticut	37,264	36,396	859	9	2.3	North Carolina	89,854	62,081	26,772	1,001	29.8
Delaware	5,657	4,761	893	3	15.8	North Dakota	13,357	12,994	4	359	(2)
District of Columbia	15,179	10,090	5,048	41	33.3	Ohio	144,327	138,085	6,211	31	4.3
Florida	40,901	29,512	11,359	30	27.8	Oklahoma	46,008	41,012	3,007	1,989	6.5
Georgia	72,491	45,507	26,971	13	37.2	Oregon	22,518	22,203	41	274	.2
Idaho	11,454	11,327	1	126	(2)	Pennsylvania	197,177	186,349	10,771	57	5.5
Illinois	156,232	147,724	8,407	101	5.4	Rhode Island	14,182	13,896	281	5	2.0
Indiana	73,706	71,220	2,472	14	3.4	South Carolina	48,835	25,865	22,948	22	47.0
Iowa	48,454	48,141	281	32	.6	South Dakota	12,424	11,627	5	792	(2)
Kansas	33,920	32,752	1,111	57	3.3	Tennessee	65,147	54,900	10,241	6	15.7
Kentucky	66,267	62,619	3,644	4	5.5	Texas	144,742	126,424	18,243	75	12.6
Louisiana	58,093	35,082	22,923	88	39.5	Utah	15,822	15,633	22	167	.1
Maine	17,719	17,673	14	32	.1	Vermont	7,175	7,174	1		(2)
Maryland	44,237	35,985	8,235	17	18.6	Virginia	67,950	50,911	16,998	41	25.0
Massachusetts	82,773	81,660	1,044	69	1.3	Washington	39,007	38,244	81	682	.2
Michigan	123,886	118,784	4,867	235	3.9	West Virginia	43,922	41,412	2,504	6	5.7
Minnesota	58,770	58,198	60	512	.1	Wisconsin	63,982	63,329	213	440	.3
Mississippi	56,667	25,566	30,979	122	54.7	Wyoming	5,567	5,401	25	141	.4
Missouri	70,711	65,903	4,776	32	6.8						

[1] Tabulations are by place of residence of mother of child.
[2] Less than 0.1 percent.

In 1942 the maternal mortality rate for the United States as a whole was 25.9 (per 10,000 live births), and the infant mortality rate was 40.4 (per 1,000 live births).[1] The low level of these two rates for the United States as a whole, however, should not blind us to the fact that not all areas of the country and not all groups of the population show equally satisfactory conditions. For example, 18 States had maternal mortality rates higher than the Negroes was about the same as that for whites in 1934, and the 1942 infant mortality rate for Negroes was about the same as that for whites in 1928.

The birth rate for 1942 was 21.0 live births per 1,000 estimated population, a rate higher than for any year since 1925, when it was 21.3. The number of births registered was 2,808,996, the largest number ever registered in the country, and there is reason to believe that at least another 200,000 infants were born whose births were not registered.[2]

[1] Final figures for 1943 are not yet available. Provisional figures for 1943 indicate a birth rate of 21.9 live births per 1,000 estimated population, and an infant mortality rate of 39.9 deaths per 1,000 live births. No provisional figure for maternal mortality for 1943 is available.

[2] The Bureau of the Census has estimated that the 1942 birth registration was 92.5 percent complete.

TABLE 2.—*Number and percent of births, by race, according to person in attendance, live births; United States, 1942 and 1941*

Race	Live births	Number attended by—			Percent attended by—		
		Physician		Nonmedical person	Physician		Nonmedical person
		In hospital	In home		In hospital	In home	
1942							
All races	2,808,996	1,906,833	693,921	208,242	67.9	24.7	7.4
White	2,486,934	1,808,121	616,503	62,310	72.7	24.8	2.5
Negro	307,777	89,016	74,855	143,906	28.9	24.3	46.8
Other	14,285	9,696	2,563	2,026	67.9	17.9	14.2
1941							
All races	2,513,427	1,537,719	759,986	215,722	61.2	30.2	8.6
White	2,204,903	1,448,132	688,188	68,583	65.7	31.2	3.1
Negro	294,554	80,424	68,859	145,271	27.3	23.4	49.3
Other	13,970	9,163	2,939	1,868	65.6	21.0	13.4

Almost 300,000 more births were recorded in 1942 than in 1941, and the birth rate rose from 18.9 to 21.0 births per 1,000 estimated population. Negro births in 1942 comprised 11 percent of the total—a slightly smaller proportion than in 1941. The number of births in 1942 for white, Negro, and "other races" is shown in table 1 for each of the States.

Of all the births registered in 1942, 92.6 percent were attended by physicians, either in hospitals or in homes (in 1941 this proportion was slightly lower). The increase in percentage of births with medical attendance was chiefly due to a higher proportion of hospital births for white mothers (possibly a reflection of improved economic conditions). For Negroes the proportion of home deliveries attended by physicians increased slightly, as well as the proportion of hospital deliveries. (See table 2).

The proportion of births occurring in hospitals in 1942 (table 3) ranged from 95.9 percent for Connecticut to 21.5 percent for Mississippi. Thirty-one States had a higher proportion of hospital births than that shown for the United States as a whole.

TABLE 3.—*Percent of births, by person in attendance, live births; United States and each State, 1942*[1]

Area	Percent attended by—			Area	Percent attended by—		
	Physician		Nonmedical person		Physician		Nonmedical person
	In hospital	In home			In hospital	In home	
United States	67.9	24.7	7.4	Montana	89.2	9.5	1.3
Alabama	29.8	42.3	27.9	Nebraska	70.4	29.5	.1
Arizona	73.2	18.3	8.5	Nevada	91.2	7.6	1.2
Arkansas	27.7	50.3	22.0	New Hampshire	86.4	13.6	(2)
California	92.1	7.3	.6	New Jersey	90.2	8.4	1.4
Colorado	72.7	25.6	1.7	New Mexico	40.2	32.4	27.4
Connecticut	95.9	3.9	.2	New York	92.2	7.3	.5
Delaware	78.0	15.4	6.6	North Carolina	38.1	41.2	20.7
District of Columbia	90.3	9.7	(2)	North Dakota	74.6	23.3	2.1
Florida	55.6	22.1	22.3	Ohio	75.4	24.6	(2)
Georgia	40.5	29.3	30.2	Oklahoma	55.2	40.9	3.9
Idaho	81.0	18.7	.3	Oregon	93.4	6.3	.3
Illinois	84.9	14.9	.2	Pennsylvania	73.9	25.9	.2
Indiana	69.1	30.7	.2	Rhode Island	87.3	12.3	.4
Iowa	72.0	27.9	.1	South Carolina	29.9	30.9	39.2
Kansas	70.1	29.8	.1	South Dakota	69.3	29.1	1.6
Kentucky	27.3	58.3	14.4	Tennessee	37.9	54.9	7.2
Louisiana	52.4	21.2	26.4	Texas	55.6	30.1	14.3
Maine	67.6	31.7	.7	Utah	82.5	16.9	.6
Maryland	67.7	26.7	5.6	Vermont	70.5	29.5	(2)
Massachusetts	91.7	8.3	(2)	Virginia	44.8	36.4	18.8
Michigan	79.2	20.6	.2	Washington	94.5	5.3	.2
Minnesota	79.2	20.2	.6	West Virginia	32.2	63.3	4.5
Mississippi	21.5	32.3	46.2	Wisconsin	77.7	22.1	.2
Missouri	59.6	37.0	3.4	Wyoming	81.3	18.3	.4

[1] Tabulations are by place of residence of mother of child.
[2] Less than 0.1 percent.

Maternal Mortality

In 1942, 7,267 women died from causes directly due to pregnancy and childbirth. This is a reduction of nearly 700 from the number who died from similar causes in 1941. The maternal death rate in 1942 was 25.9 per 10,000 live births, a reduction of 18 percent from the rate of 31.7 for 1941. This is the lowest maternal mortality rate ever recorded for the United States.

The reduction from 1941 to 1942 was greater for Negroes than for whites, as may be seen from the following comparison:

MATERNAL DEATHS PER 10,000 LIVE BIRTHS

	Total	*White*	*Negro*	*Other*
1942	25.9	22.2	54.9	43.4
1941	31.7	26.6	69.0	42.2
Percent change	*—18*	*—17*	*—20*	*+3*

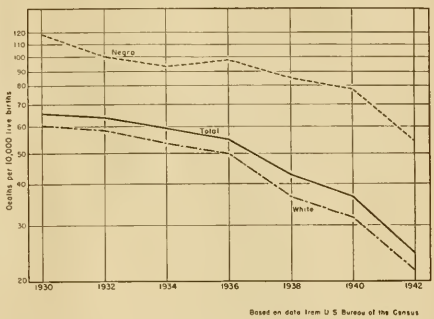
In spite of this encouraging decrease, the rate for Negroes is still more than twice the rate for the white race, so that the battle for saving mothers, especially Negro mothers, is still not won.

Maternal Mortality by States.

In 1942, 31 States had rates as low as or lower than that for the United States. Nevada had the lowest rate (7.2) with New Hampshire next (12.0). The highest rates were 48.1 for New Mexico and 53.2 for South Carolina. Too much dependence, however, should not be placed on the actual size of the maternal mortality rate for an individual State for a single year. In some States the classification of even one more death as due to puerperal causes would change the size of the rate significantly.

Table 4 shows the maternal mortality data for each State in 1942 and 1941. Most of the States had lower rates in 1942, but five States (Arizona, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, and Wyoming) had higher rates. A reduction in rate of more than 25 percent took place from 1941 to 1942 in 13 States.

FIG. 1—MATERNAL MORTALITY RATES, BY RACE, 1930–42[1]



[1] Since 1933 all the States have been included in the birth-registration area; in 1930 all but 2 States were included.

TABLE 4.—*Maternal mortality; United States and each State, 1942 and 1941*[1]

Area	1942		1941		Area	1942		1941	
	Number of maternal deaths[2]	Rate (deaths per 10,000 live births)	Number of maternal deaths[2]	Rate (deaths per 10,000 live births)		Number of maternal deaths[2]	Rate (deaths per 10,000 live births)	Number of maternal deaths[2]	Rate (deaths per 10,000 live births)
United States	7,267	25.9	7,956	31.7	Montana	26	22.2	21	18.2
					Nebraska	45	19.0	49	22.3
Alabama	235	33.0	345	53.6	Nevada	2	7.2	9	40.9
Arizona	49	38.7	32	28.0	New Hampshire	11	12.0	24	28.0
Arkansas	158	37.0	164	40.4	New Jersey	162	19.8	179	26.6
California	306	19.8	280	22.4	New Mexico	68	48.1	66	44.8
Colorado	44	18.7	72	33.7	New York	545	22.3	491	23.3
Connecticut	67	18.0	59	20.3	North Carolina	307	34.2	336	39.7
Delaware	9	15.9	11	21.6	North Dakota	29	21.7	29	21.9
District of Columbia	41	27.0	36	27.9	Ohio	300	20.8	321	25.5
Florida	166	40.6	231	61.5	Oklahoma	142	30.9	144	31.4
Georgia	300	41.4	325	47.9	Oregon	38	16.9	43	22.8
Idaho	30	26.2	28	24.0	Pennsylvania	530	26.9	547	31.4
Illinois	326	20.9	340	25.0	Rhode Island	26	18.3	24	20.7
Indiana	178	24.2	167	25.5	South Carolina	260	53.2	300	63.3
Iowa	94	19.4	122	26.5	South Dakota	25	20.1	32	26.3
Kansas	88	25.9	84	27.6	Tennessee	197	30.2	219	36.6
Kentucky	178	26.9	240	37.8	Texas	440	30.4	491	35.9
Louisiana	201	34.6	236	43.2	Utah	27	17.1	27	19.9
Maine	38	21.4	49	30.6	Vermont	15	20.9	16	23.0
Maryland	88	19.9	97	26.2	Virginia	220	32.4	236	38.6
Massachusetts	174	21.0	199	28.6	Washington	68	17.4	56	18.3
Michigan	257	20.7	291	27.1	West Virginia	103	23.5	124	28.2
Minnesota	96	16.3	111	20.4	Wisconsin	114	17.8	136	23.8
Mississippi	249	43.9	308	56.3	Wyoming	13	23.4	10	18.8
Missouri	182	25.7	199	30.5					

[1] Tabulations are by place of residence of mother.
[2] Deaths due directly to diseases of pregnancy, childbirth, and the puerperium.

FIG 2. MATERNAL MORTALITY BY RACE, STATES HAVING 2,500 OR MORE NEGRO LIVE BIRTHS IN 1942

(Data from U. S. Bureau of the Census)

In the 24 States with 2,500 or more Negro live births,[3] the lowest maternal mortality rate for Negroes was 33.7 (District of Columbia) and the highest was 80.1 (Florida). (See fig. 2.)

The difference between the rates for whites and Negroes in these 24 States varies considerably. The greatest difference is in Michigan, where the Negro rate is almost four times the white rate; the least is in the District of Columbia, where the Negro rate is less than 1½ times the white rate.

Causes of Maternal Death.

Accompanying an increase of more than 500,000 live births from 1939 to 1942 there was a decrease of nearly 2,000 maternal deaths. (See table 5.) In each year from 1939 on,[4] infection has been the cause of the largest number of maternal deaths. In 1939 and 1940 there were more deaths from toxemias than from the group, "hemorrhage, trauma, or shock." In 1941 the two groups differed by only 1 maternal death. In 1942 there were noticeably fewer deaths from toxemias than from hemorrhage, trauma, or shock (1,866 from toxemia, 2,018 from hemorrhage, trauma, or shock).

Three causes of death—infection, toxemias, and the group comprising hemorrhage, trauma, or shock—were responsible for 90 percent of the 7,267 maternal deaths in 1942. The remaining 765 deaths were due to other and unspecified causes.

Infection was responsible for 2,618 (36 percent) of the deaths. The death rate for this cause was 9.3 per 10,000 live births in 1942 and 12.1 in 1941—a reduction of 23 percent.

The other two major groups of causes, toxemias and the group, "hemorrhage, trauma, or

[3] The figure of 2,500 Negro live births was used as a minimum in order to provide statistical stability to the rates by race.

[4] Maternal deaths from 1939 on have been classified according to the 1938 revision of the International List of Causes of Death, which makes possible a classification of deaths according to outcome of pregnancy.

TABLE 5.—*Maternal deaths from each cause, by time of death; United States, 1942 and 1941*

Cause of death	Number of maternal deaths									
	Total		During or after ectopic pregnancy		During or after abortion [1]		Before delivery [2]		During or after childbirth [3]	
	1942	1941	1942	1941	1942	1941	1942	1941	1942	1941
All causes	7,267	7,956	346	358	1,231	1,384	1,110	1,160	4,580	5,114
Infection	2,618	3,034	76	77	929	1,014			1,613	1,943
Toxemias	1,866	2,031			79	101	777	769	1,010	1,161
Eclampsia	969	1,016					384	364	585	652
Albuminuria and nephritis	437	491					184	188	253	303
Other toxemias	460	524			79	101	209	217	172	206
Hemorrhage, trauma, or shock	2,018	2,032	270	281	111	125	61	63	1,576	1,563
Other and unspecified causes	765	859			112	144	272	268	381	447

[1] Abortion: Termination of a uterine pregnancy prior to 7 lunar months (28 weeks) of gestation.
[2] Deaths before delivery: Deaths of all women who died undelivered during uterine pregnancy.
[3] Childbirth: Termination of a uterine pregnancy at 7 lunar months (28 weeks) or more of gestation.

shock," were responsible for 26 and 28 percent of the deaths, respectively. The death rates in 1942 from these two groups of causes were 6.7 and 7.2 per 10,000 live births. These rates represent decreases of 17 and 11 percent respectively from the 1941 rates.

The greatest gain in reducing maternal death rates was made where infection was the cause of death. Increased hospitalization and improved methods of treatment may be the reason for this reduction.

Maternal Mortality and Time of Death.

When the maternal mortality rates for 1942 and 1941 are compared according to the time of death, a decrease is found for each of the four time classifications shown in table 5, as follows:

MATERNAL DEATHS PER 10,000 LIVE BIRTHS

	During or after ectopic pregnancy	*During or after abortion*	*Before delivery*	*During or after childbirth*
1942	1.2	4.4	4.0	16.3
1941	1.4	5.5	4.4	20.3
Percent change	*—14*	*—20*	*—9*	*—15*

The smallest decrease was for the deaths that occurred before delivery. The smallness of the decrease was due to an actual increase in the number of maternal deaths from eclampsia and from other and unspecified causes occurring before delivery.

Infant Mortality

In 1942, 113,492 infants died before they were a year old—nearly 500 fewer than died in 1941. The infant mortality rate for 1942 was 40.4 per 1,000 live births, a reduction of 11 percent from the 1941 rate of 45.3.

In any discussion of infant mortality rates, the customary method used in arriving at the annual rate should be kept in mind. This is to divide the number of infant deaths that occurred in a calendar year by the number of live births that occurred during the same period. Since the infant deaths are, by definition, the deaths of all infants that die before they reach one year of age, it is obvious that, for example, some of the infants that died in 1942 were born in the latter part of 1941 and are therefore not included in the 1942 births, and conversely some of the infants born in 1942 will have died in 1943 and are therefore not included in the infant deaths for 1942.

When the number of births does not vary much from one year to the next the infant mortality rate as usually calculated is not greatly in error. When the number of births is changing rapidly, as in the last few years, such a rate may be quite inaccurate. During 1941 and 1942 the number of births increased sharply, and therefore the infant mortality rate as usually calculated is lower for each year than the true rate. However, the rate declined in 1942 even when allowance is made for this increase in births: the corrected rates for 1942 and 1941, as estimated by the Bureau of the Census, are 41.6 and 46.1, respectively.

The reduction in the infant mortality rate was more pronounced for Negroes than for whites, as will be seen from the following comparison:

DEATHS OF INFANTS UNDER 1 YEAR PER 1,000 LIVE BIRTHS

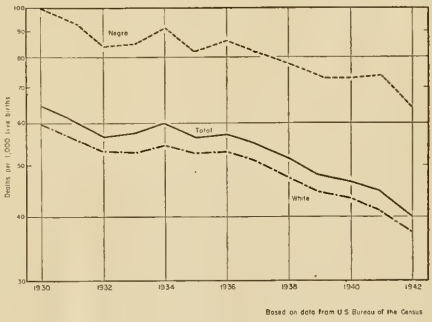
	Total	*White*	*Negro*	*Other*
1942	40.4	37.3	64.2	74.1
1941	45.3	41.2	74.1	88.8
Percent change	*—11*	*—10*	*—13*	*17*

Infant Mortality by States.

Table 6 shows the infant mortality rate for each State for 1942 and for 1941. In 1942 more than half the States had rates lower than that for the country as a whole, and two States (Connecticut and Minnesota) had rates below 30.0 per 1,000 live births, which was the lowest rate previously reported for any State. In contrast to these low rates, however, some States showed extremely high ones—Arizona 80.1 and New Mexico 97.9.

Although the infant mortality rate for the United States has been decreasing every year since 1936, some individual States each year show rates higher than for the preceding year.

FIG. 3.—INFANT MORTALITY RATES, BY RACE
1930–42[1]



[1] Since 1933 all the States have been included in the birth-registration area; in 1930 all but 2 States were included.

TABLE 6.—*Infant mortality: United States and each State, 1942 and 1941*[1]

Area	1942		1941	
	Number of infant deaths[2]	Rate (deaths per 1,000 live births)	Number of infant deaths[2]	Rate (deaths per 1,000 live births)
United States	113,492	40.4	113,949	45.3
Alabama	3,561	50.1	3,827	59.4
Arizona	1,014	80.1	1,038	90.9
Arkansas	1,694	39.7	1,812	44.7
California	5,385	34.8	4,586	36.6
Colorado	1,172	49.7	1,113	52.0
Connecticut	1,088	29.2	888	30.6
Delaware	266	47.0	221	43.4
District of Columbia	771	50.8	744	57.7
Florida	1,953	47.7	1,985	52.9
Georgia	3,571	49.3	3,965	58.4
Idaho	415	36.2	417	35.8
Illinois	5,170	33.1	4,661	34.2
Indiana	2,701	36.6	2,615	39.9
Iowa	1,623	33.5	1,676	36.3
Kansas	1,205	35.5	1,145	37.6
Kentucky	3,209	48.4	3,738	58.9
Louisiana	2,802	48.2	3,157	57.8
Maine	816	46.1	838	51.2
Maryland	1,941	43.9	1,927	52.0
Massachusetts	2,651	32.0	2,464	35.4
Michigan	4,608	37.2	4,161	38.7
Minnesota	1,739	29.6	1,874	34.5
Mississippi	2,680	47.3	3,016	55.1
Missouri	2,761	39.0	3,019	46.3
Montana	395	33.7	438	37.9
Nebraska	791	33.4	759	34.6
Nevada	159	57.2	93	42.3
New Hampshire	329	35.9	329	38.3
New Jersey	2,542	31.1	2,408	35.8
New Mexico	1,583	97.9	1,437	97.5
New York	7,814	31.9	6,950	33.0
North Carolina	4,342	48.3	5,053	59.7
North Dakota	488	36.5	492	37.1
Ohio	5,345	37.0	5,134	40.8
Oklahoma	1,906	41.4	2,186	47.7
Oregon	687	30.5	580	30.7
Pennsylvania	7,527	38.2	7,125	40.9
Rhode Island	560	39.5	405	34.9
South Carolina	2,866	58.7	3,554	75.0
South Dakota	474	38.2	502	41.3
Tennessee	3,020	46.4	3,250	54.3
Texas	7,760	53.6	7,744	56.6
Utah	522	33.0	402	29.7
Vermont	299	41.7	301	43.2
Virginia	3,565	52.5	3,964	64.9
Washington	1,292	33.1	1,061	34.7
West Virginia	2,329	53.0	2,679	60.9
Wisconsin	2,050	32.0	2,006	35.1
Wyoming	251	45.1	230	43.2

[1] Tabulations are by place of residence of mother of child.
[2] Deaths under 1 year, exclusive of stillbirths.

Seven States had higher rates in 1942 than in 1941: Delaware, Idaho, Nevada, New Mexico, Rhode Island, Utah, and Wyoming.

Figure 4 shows the rates for 1942 for white and Negro infant mortality in the 24 States that had a large enough number of Negro births to make the rates statistically valid. (See footnote 3.) In every one of the 24 States the rate is higher for Negroes than for white. The lowest rate for Negroes was 45.8 in Illinois and the highest 77.4 in Virginia.

The difference in the rates for the two races varies widely from State to State. For instance, in Maryland, the Negro rate was more than twice as high as the white rate but in Arkansas and West Virginia the difference was much less pronounced.

Age of Infants at Time of Death.

Of the 113,492 infant deaths in 1942, 34,616 (31 percent) occurred within the first 24 hours after birth, and 72,122 (64 percent) before the infant reached 1 month of age.

The mortality rate during the first day of life showed little reduction from 1915 to 1941; in 1942 it showed more of a decline. In 1940 the rate for infants under 1 day was 13.9; in 1941, 13.2; and in 1942, 12.3. The mortality rate during the neonatal period (under 1 month) in 1942 continued the generally downward trend that it has shown since 1915, reaching the new low level of 25.7.

FIG. 4. INFANT MORTALITY BY RACE, STATES HAVING 2,500 OR MORE NEGRO LIVE BIRTHS IN 1942

(Data from U. S. Bureau of the Census)

Causes of Infant Deaths.

For each of the main groups of causes of infant mortality shown in table 7, the rate was lower in 1942 than in 1941. The greatest percentage reduction in rate was for epidemic and other communicable diseases, possibly as the result of increased use of the newer therapeutic measures in the treatment of these diseases. Gastrointestinal diseases also showed a marked decrease in the rate. The smallest percentage reduction was for natal and prenatal causes, indicating the need for continued medical attention to this problem. In fact, the actual number of deaths from prenatal and natal causes was greater in 1942 than in 1941; congenital debility and syphilis were the only two causes in this group that showed fewer deaths in 1942. The other three main groups of causes all showed fewer deaths in 1942, with the relative distribution of these deaths similar to that in 1941.

Premature birth continued to be responsible for more infant deaths than any other cause; 97 percent of such deaths occurred during the first month after birth.

TABLE 7.—*Causes of death in the first year of life; United States, 1942 and 1941*

Cause of death	Deaths in the first year of life			
	Number		Number per 1,000 live births	
	1942	1941	1942	1941
All causes	113,492	113,949	40.4	45.3
Prenatal and natal causes	70,058	66,380	24.9	26.4
Premature birth	34,504	33,341	12.3	13.3
Congenital malformations	13,672	11,796	4.8	4.7
Injury at birth	11,455	10,889	4.1	4.3
Congenital debility	2,738	2,887	1.0	1.1
Other diseases peculiar to the first year of life	6,704	6,310	2.4	2.5
Syphilis	845	1,042	.3	.4
Tetanus	140	115	(1)	(1)
Respiratory diseases [2]	17,291	17,898	6.2	7.1
Gastrointestinal diseases [3]	9,135	10,813	3.2	4.3
Epidemic and other communicable diseases [4]	2,993	4,010	1.1	1.6
All other specified causes	8,758	9,338	3.1	3.7
Ill-defined and unknown causes	5,257	5,510	1.9	2.2

[1] Less than 0.1 per 1,000 live births.
[2] Influenza, pneumonia, and other diseases of the respiratory system.
[3] Dysentery, diseases of the stomach, diarrhea and enteritis, and other diseases of the digestive system.
[4] Measles, scarlet fever, whooping cough, diphtheria, erysipelas, cerebrospinal (meningococcus) meningitis, and tuberculosis.

A limited supply of reprints of this article will be available from the Children's Bureau, Washington 25, D. C.

Additional Appropriation for Emergency Maternity and Infant Care

On May 12 the President approved a bill appropriating a sum of $6,700,000 to the Children's Bureau for grants to States for emergency maternity and infant care in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1944, in addition to the $23,000,000 already appropriated. Wives and infants of enlisted men in the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh pay grades of the armed forces are eligible for care under this program, which provides medical, hospital, and nursing services.

The report on the bill points out that the additional sum is necessary because the number of wives and infants applying for care has exceeded expectations. Up to April 30 more than 300,000 cases had been authorized by State health departments for care.

BOOK NOTES

HANDBOOK OF NUTRITION. American Medical Association, 535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago 10, 1943. 586 pp. $2.50.

This handbook, prepared under the auspices of the Council on Foods and Nutrition of the American Medical Association, consists of a series of articles that appeared in the Journal of the American Medical Association in 1942 and 1943, and a few additions that have been made. The dietary needs of special groups of the population such as infants and children are discussed, and the question is raised whether the nutritional status of the population will be maintained, improved, or adversely affected by wartime treatment of disease. This handbook should be of value to all professional workers concerned with present-day problems in the field of nutrition.

AN INTRODUCTION TO FOODS AND NUTRITION, by Henry C. Sherman and Caroline Sherman Lanford. Macmillan Co., New York, 1943. 292 pp. $2.

Addressed primarily to the college student and the average adult with no scientific background in the field of nutrition, this book discusses the nutritive requirements of individuals as influenced by age, sex, and occupation, and the contributions of the several groups of food, and gives practical suggestions for meeting these needs at different economic levels. Emphasis is placed on modifications that must be made to meet present conditions of food shortages and rationing.

Indiana Programs for Children of Working Mothers[1]

By Louise Griffin

Director, Children's Division, State Department of Public Welfare, Indiana

Responsibilities of State Welfare Department

In relation to programs for care of children of working mothers, the responsibilities of the State welfare department, as summarized by Miss Griffin, should be:

1. To understand what is involved in the need for day-care services and the kind of services possible, and to establish standards for the various types of day-care facilities.

2. To stimulate and give leadership to communities, whenever possible, in finding and recognizing need for day-care services.

3. To assist the communities, through consultation service, in the organization and utilization of their local resources and in the understanding of outside resources.

4. To assist local agencies and committees in planning and establishing facilities of various types and in establishing facilities which will meet standards.

5. To assist in the development of a specific facility and its program whenever another State or Federal agency is not assuming this responsibility. Where the department of public welfare has licensing responsibility, regular supervision should be given to the local nursery or other agency. Where the department of public welfare does not have licensing responsibility, services may be limited to those of a consultative nature.

6. To assist child-welfare agencies and day-care centers or nurseries in the development of staff through consultation service and in-service training programs.

7. To work with Federal agencies and other State agencies having responsibility in this field with the aim of coordinating services on a State and local level and of improving services.

The Children's Division of the Indiana Department of Public Welfare has assigned to it by law the responsibility for administering or supervising all public child-welfare services and for administering the licensing function of the State department with regard to child-caring agencies. This includes the following responsibilities related to day-care services:

1. Supervision of the county departments of public welfare in child-welfare services. There is a county department of public welfare in each county and these have specific and broad responsibilities for children.

2. Licensing and supervision of all child-caring institutions and agencies, boarding homes for children, and maternity homes and hospitals. The licensing law has been interpreted to include day nurseries and boarding homes for day care.

3. Supervision of dependent and neglected children in foster homes and in institutions.

4. Extension and development of child-welfare services in areas predominantly rural and in areas of special need in cooperation with the United States Children's Bureau through the use of Federal funds.

These responsibilities for children are both specific and broad.

To carry out these responsibilities the State Department of Public Welfare has in each of its 12 district offices a district representative who represents the Children's Division in administrative supervision of the county departments of public welfare and in over-all planning and community organization. There is also a child-welfare consultant in each district office who works with the district representative in the development of child-welfare programs, under the supervision of the Children's Division. The district child-welfare consultant works with the county department of public welfare in the development of child-welfare-service programs, studies and supervises all child-caring institutions and agencies for which the Children's Division has licensing responsibility, and reviews, for purposes of licensing, studies of full-time and day-care

[1] Presented at Conference on Special Problems of Children in Wartime, Washington, D. C., February 4–6, 1944.

boarding homes made by the county departments and child-placing agencies. Where special services have been established in a county, the special child-welfare consultant and the child-welfare-service supervisor assume the responsibilities of the district child-welfare consultant. Special services have been given to eight counties in war areas.

State Committee on Children in Wartime Appointed by Governor.

In October 1942 the Governor appointed a State committee on care of children in wartime and appointed as chairman Thurman A. Gottschalk, administrator of the State Department of Public Welfare. This committee is an official committee of the State Defense Council. Its membership, starting with 28 representatives of interested State organizations and agencies, has gradually increased to 44.

The State Department of Public Welfare immediately arranged to lend a child-welfare consultant to the committee to act as executive secretary on a full-time basis. The secretary's office is located in the Office of Civilian Defense. Because of the need of the committee for field staff, plans were made in February 1943 for the district representatives of the State Department of Public Welfare to act as field staff for the State committee. Certain disadvantages in using the field staff of the State Department of Public Welfare for the State committee were recognized, but it was thought that the advantages outweighed the disadvantages.

Stimulates Establishment of Needed Day-Care Facilities.

The State committee gave its immediate attention to coordinating services of State agencies and to stimulating the establishment of needed day-care facilities. Most of the State committee's time was given to day-care services until November 1943, when a subcommittee on delinquency was appointed, with the plan of immediately starting an active program.

The executive secretary and the committee's field staff have worked with all types of agencies and organizations interested in planning for day care of children. When it has seemed, for instance, that an application for Lanham Act funds should be made through the school, the local committee has been given assistance in getting a member of the staff of the Work Projects Administration (later, of the Federal Works Agency), to plan with them. When a nursery was to be established which would be licensed by the Children's Division of the State Department of Public Welfare, the child-welfare consultant has been called in to plan with the local committee or agency. During the time that allotments from the President's Emergency Fund were available a special field staff in the State Office of Education helped in establishing facilities in the schools.

When new day-care centers and nurseries were looking for staff it became evident that available people trained in child development and nursery education were practically nonexistent in the State, although a number of people with 2 or more years of college and teaching experience were interested in working in the centers. For that reason the State committee in June appointed a subcommittee on recruitment and training. It seemed to the subcommittee that the most immediate need was for in-service training, which would be given in the cities where the centers were located, so that the staffs could carry on their regular work at the same time that they were receiving the training. Purdue University, Indiana University, the State Board of Health, and the State Department of Public Welfare agreed to pay the expenses of people from their staffs, who were to assist with the course.

Training Course for Day-Care Staff Given in Two Urban Areas.

This course has been given in Indianapolis and in one other urban area. (Plans are now being made to give courses to staffs in smaller cities.) This course and future plans for training have been described in an article published in the January number of the Bulletin of the Child Welfare League of America.

The child-welfare consultants have worked with county departments of public welfare and licensed child-placing agencies in planning for boarding homes for day care. In three urban centers a local agency wanted to use volunteers to make studies of such homes. The Children's Division, however, required that any such program be under the close supervision of either the county department of public welfare or a licensed child-placing agency and did not accept the studies for licensing unless they were so supervised. In these centers training courses were given for volunteers, and the child-welfare consultant helped with the planning and giving of these courses.

State Has 264 Licensed Boarding Homes for Day Care.

Indiana now has 264 licensed boarding homes for day care. Nearly all these are in urban centers, but a few are in rural areas. This is a small number for the whole State, even though it is a type of care which has developed almost

entirely during the past 1½ years. Many of the boarding homes licensed are still not in use, but the use of them is steadily increasing. The finding and use of boarding homes for day care is one of the problems that the district representatives and child-welfare consultants have discussed with local agencies and committees in an effort to bring about better use of this type of care.

Standards Developed by Children's Division.

The Children's Division of the State Department of Public Welfare has developed standards for day nurseries and boarding homes for day care; with supplementary standards for large boarding homes for day care. All these were adopted May 1942.

The day-nursery standards were prepared by a subcommittee of the State advisory committee on child-welfare services. Staff members of the Work Projects Administration and of the Bureau of Maternal and Child Health of the State Board of Health gave assistance in developing the standards, which were then carefully reviewed by the large committee. These standards include both minimum and recommended standards. Our experience in using them has convinced us that the minimum standards are really minimum. We have, however, gone along with the opening of nurseries in areas where they are needed when the facilities would not, for a time, meet standards for licensing. For example, in Indianapolis when the Emergency Day-Care Services were finally established in May 1943 facilities were badly needed. The Children's Division arranged for the regular child-welfare consultant in that district to have the assistance of another child-welfare consultant who has spent half her time working with the Emergency Day-Care Services and other organizations interested in establishing day-care facilities. I discussed the day-nursery standards with the president of the board of the Emergency Day-Care Services and we agreed on a plan for working together in getting facilities established and in meeting standards. The board agreed that these standards should be met as soon as possible. This board now is responsible for eight nurseries and is expecting to open four others. Six of the eight are licensed. The other two will be licensed soon.

The standards for boarding homes for day care were written by a staff committee. When it was decided that volunteers could be used under supervision for study of these homes, a committee was appointed in the Children's Division to prepare a form for recording, which combines the use of a form of factual material and an outline for a narrative to follow. The county departments of public welfare and child-placing agencies have found this form most helpful to both staff members and volunteers.

The State committee field staff and the child-welfare consultants have discussed with local agencies and committees the need for counseling service, but thus far very little of this type of service has been used. In two of the urban areas, however, good counseling programs are established and their use is increasing.

The State committee has worked closely with the State Department of Public Welfare and has carried some responsibilities which the State department would have assumed if there had not been that committee organization. The coordination of services given by all State and Federal agencies having responsibility for day care of children has, I believe, been the most important service of the State committee. The executive secretary of the committee has had frequent conferences with the district representatives in their capacity as field staff for the committee and has met with the district representatives and child-welfare consultants in the regular monthly staff meetings of the State department to discuss programs and problems.

Local programs for day care of children have seemed to us to develop very slowly, and many times along the way we have become discouraged. Keeping the State staff concerned about the need for day-care facilities where local people show no interest in the establishment of a day-care program has been most difficult. We have found that surveys often do not show the need when it exists. Finding a new approach to the community where the number of women working is already large and is increasing but where there is lack of local interest is one of our real problems.

Developing Local Leadership a Problem.

Another problem is that of developing local leadership. It was decided that the State committee should work through local civilian-defense directors and committees unless day-care committees were already organized under different auspices. This plan has not provided responsible leadership in many communities, and it has taken considerable time to bring about a different kind of organization in the few spots where a change has been accomplished. The State committee believed that the selection of the committee personnel and chairmen should be left to the local community, except that the State committee did suggest

organizations and agencies that should be represented.

Another problem is that of shortage and limitations of staff, both State and local.

Overcoming the attitude that mothers should not work and that providing facilities for day care would encourage mothers to work when they should not leave their children has been a continuous problem.

We still have not been successful in our efforts to help communities see the importance of including the parents of the children in the planning and program development. This has been done in only a few spots with a few parents. Parents are still making their own plans and too often they are very poor plans. They are not responding to community planning as they should, and I believe this is due largely to their not being a part of the planning. We have more and more unlicensed boarding homes coming to our attention.

We are also concerned with the placement of babies in nurseries. Most of the nurseries do not take children under 2 years of age, but a few nurseries do. One nursery established by an industry has encouraged mothers to leave their babies in the nursery. There is also the problem of caring for children when parents work at night.

With all our problems, we have had real accomplishments during the past year. Many communities are now concerned about the care of children while mothers work and some good programs have been established. It is very encouraging to see communities become really concerned about their children and to witness community organization directed toward better opportunities and better services for all children. It is my hope that this concern and this kind of organization can be carried over to post-war days.

Conference on Police Work With Juveniles

Better community understanding of juvenile delinquents and of the resources available for helping them, improvement in techniques for handling cases and referring them from one group to another, and coordination of effort by all groups in the community, including the police, who work with juveniles—this is the threefold program drawn up at a meeting of chiefs of police, sheriffs, and representatives of social agencies held at the Children's Bureau on May 9, 1944. A report on the training of police officers for work with juveniles, prepared by a subcommittee, was presented and discussed.

An advisory committee including the persons present at the meeting has been appointed by the Secretary of Labor to work with the Bureau and with the International Association of Chiefs of Police in realizing this program, which will be correlated with other aspects of the Bureau's work, especially those dealing with juvenile courts, training schools for maladjusted children, group-work and recreation programs, and day care for children of working mothers.

Committee on Plans for Children and Youth

The Committee on Plans for Children and Youth, appointed by the Chairman of the Children's Bureau Commission on Children in Wartime, held its first meeting May 6, 1944. The committee is responsible for blocking out the areas in which planning is needed, for calling upon the Children's Bureau advisory committees, other agencies, and the Children's Bureau staff to develop practicable proposals within their respective fields, and for guiding the preparation of proposals for the consideration of the Commission.

The membership of the commitee is drawn from the executive committee of the Commission and includes the following:

Mrs. Harriet A. Houdlette, *Chairman.*

A. W. Dent
John W. Edelman
Henry F. Helmholz, M. D.
Kate Bullock Helms
Boris Shishkin
Roy Sorenson
George S. Stevenson, M. D.
Gertrude Folks Zimand

Congressional Resolution Relating to Food for Occupied Countries

On April 17 the House of Representatives passed a resolution (H. Res. 221) in favor of the feeding of the people of enemy-occupied countries. An identical resolution (S. Res. 100) had already been passed in the Senate by unanimous vote.

A report of the Senate hearings on this resolution before a subcommittee of the Committee on Foreign Relations has been printed (Relief for Starving Peoples of Europe. Government Printing Office, Washington, 1944. 159 pp.)

Great Britain

Health of Children

The strengthening of various public-health measures and health services for mothers and children was reflected in the vital statistics of Great Britain, according to the SUMMARY REPORT OF MINISTRY OF HEALTH FOR THE YEAR ENDED MARCH 31, 1943 (Comd. 6468. H. M. Stationery Office, London, 1943. 56 pp. Price 1s, net).

The live birth rate of 15.8 per 1,000 population was the highest since 1931. The provisional infant mortality rate was 49 per 1,000 live births compared with 59 in 1941. The maternal mortality rate was 2.47 per 1,000 live births compared with 2.76 in 1941. The mortality rate for children 1 to 5 years of age was 2 percent below the 1941 rate and that for children 5 to 15 years of age fell to the 1939 level.

The campaign for inoculation against diphtheria was pressed strongly, with more than 1,380,000 children immunized during the calendar year 1942. Deaths from diphtheria reached a new low level.

The death rate from tuberculosis, which had been increasing for 2 years, was brought down to about the pre-war level.

The emergency maternity homes established during the period of sustained air attack continued popular. At the end of March 1943, 105 of these maternity homes with some 2,750 beds were in operation, together with 65 antenatal and 11 postnatal hostels. About 32,000 mothers evacuated from metropolitan and other target areas were sent to the emergency maternity homes during the year.

The age of children for whom cod-liver oil and orange juice were made available free or at low cost was raised from 2 to 5 years.

Peru

Additional Health Services for Mothers and Children

A recent decree of the President of Peru provides for the establishment of the following additional health services for mothers and children in various parts of the country: Two prenatal clinics, three prenatal clinics combined with child-health centers, two child-health centers, and one lunchroom for expectant and nursing mothers. These institutions, like those already in existence, are to be under the supervision of the National Institute of the Child, official national agency in charge of all services for mothers and children in Peru, and are to be maintained by appropriations from the Institute's budget.

Five midwives are now employed by the Institute to provide attendance at childbirth in the home to women in Lima. Although there is a free public maternity hospital in Lima, it has been found advisable to provide this home service to the mothers of small children, when the home environment is suitable and the physical condition of the woman, as observed at a prenatal clinic, warrants expectation of a normal delivery. This service is at present limited to the city of Lima, but its extension to other cities is expected.

Boletín del Instituto Nacional del Niño, Lima, Vol. 3, No. 9–10, 1943.

UNRRA Notes

Dr. Martha M. Eliot, Associate Chief of the Children's Bureau, has been designated as an alternate to Dr. Thomas Parran as United States representative on the Standing Technical Committee on Health, Council of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration.

To assist in planning welfare services for mothers and children in liberated areas, a child-care branch has recently been established in the Welfare Division of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration.

• YOUNG WORKERS IN WARTIME •

Are Newsboys Employees?

The question of whether children selling and delivering newspapers are employees of the publisher has been for a long time one of great interest to persons concerned with child labor, because on this point often depends the possibility of safeguarding the work of these children through legislation. By calling the boys who sell and deliver their papers "independent contractors," publishers to a large extent have escaped many of the labor-law obligations ordinarily resting upon employers. A recent United States Supreme Court decision (*National Labor Relations Board* v. *Hearst Publications, et al.*, decided April 24, 1944) is significant in this connection, although the "newsboys" in the case before the court were full-time adult workers who sell at established spots.

The Court upheld the decision of the National Labor Relations Board requiring four Los Angeles daily newspapers to bargain collectively with a union representing newsboys who distribute their papers on the streets of that city. The newspapers had replied that these newsboys were not their "employees" within the meaning of the National Labor Relations Act. The court discussed the supervision and control exercised by the papers over these newsboys and held that it was sufficient to justify the National Labor Relations Board's designation of the newsboys as employees.

Justice Wiley Rutledge wrote the majority opinion, to which Justice Owen J. Roberts alone dissented.

BOOK NOTES

UTILIZATION OF YOUTH IN AIRCRAFT.—Aircraft War Production Council, Inc., Los Angeles, November 1943. 15 pp. Mimeographed.

This report describes the experience of a number of southern California aircraft companies in employing 16- and 17-year-old boys and girls on a part-time basis to help meet wartime labor needs. On the whole, plant officials found that these young people were enthusiastic, energetic, and ambitious workers, able to learn more quickly than adults and capable of efficient, highly productive work. They found also that the successful employment of 16- and 17-year-olds depends largely upon special supervision and adequate safeguards. For example, Federal and State regulations for the protection of minors must be observed; special safety precautions must be taken; and special supervision is needed to direct the energies and exuberance of minors into productive channels.

Particular attention must also be given to coordination of school and working hours, for it is recognized that employment which interferes greatly with the normal educational process may have an adverse effect on some boys and girls. The report discusses the several plans developed for combined school and work and states that school authorities are overwhelmingly in favor of the so-called "4–4 plan" whereby students 16 years of age and older work 4 hours per day and attend school for a like number of hours.

The experience of the aircraft industry should prove of value to other industries employing or contemplating the employment of high-school youth in order to meet critical manpower shortages. Copies of the report may be secured by writing to the Aircraft War Production Council, Los Angeles, California.

WORK LEADERS FOR GROUPS OF NONFARM YOUTH EMPLOYED IN AGRICULTURE. Prepared by the Children's Bureau in consultation with the Extension Farm Labor Program, War Food Administration, and Office of Education. Bureau Publication 305. Washington, 1944. 10 pp.

Supervision on the job for groups of young workers on farms has proved to be an important factor in the success of Victory Farm Volunteers programs. The advantages—to the farmer, to the young workers, and their parents, and to the agency responsible for the program—of having competent and understanding work leaders for the boys and girls are pointed out in this pamphlet. The job, the qualifications, and the preparation of work leaders are described, and some hints are given on recruiting suitable candidates.

Copies of the work-leader pamphlet can be obtained from the Children's Bureau on request.

I. L. O. Adopts Philadelphia Charter

The present aims and purposes of the International Labor Organization are expressed in the Philadelphia Charter adopted by the International Labor Conference on May 10, 1944. The first of the Charter's five sections, reaffirming certain fundamental principles, and the third, enumerating specific aims which the I. L. O. pledges itself to further among the nations of the world, are quoted here in full:

I

The conference reaffirms the fundamental principles on which the organization is based and, in particular, that:

(*a*) Labor is not a commodity;

(*b*) Freedom of expression and of association are essential to sustained progress;

(*c*) Poverty anywhere constitutes a danger to prosperity everywhere;

(*d*) The war against want requires to be carried on with unrelenting vigor within each nation, and by continuous and concerted international effort in which the representatives of workers and employers, enjoying equal status with those of governments, join with them in free discussion and democratic decision with a view to the promotion of the common welfare.

* * * * *

III

The conference recognizes the solemn obligation of the International Labor Organization to further among the nations of the world programs which will achieve:

(*a*) Full employment and the raising of standards of living;

(*b*) The employment of workers in the occupations in which they can have the satisfaction of giving the fullest measure of their skill and attainments and make their greatest contribution to the common well-being;

(*c*) The provision, as a means to the attainment of this end and under adequate guarantees for all concerned, of facilities for training and the transfer of labor, including migration for employment and settlement;

(*d*) Policies in regard to wages and earnings, hours and other conditions of work calculated to insure a just share of the fruits of progress to all, and a minimum living wage to all employed and in need of such protection;

(*e*) The effective recognition of the right of collective bargaining, the cooperation of management and labor in the continuous improvement of productive efficiency, and the collaboration of workers and employers in the preparation and application of social and economic measures;

(*f*) The extension of social security measures to provide a basic income to all in need of such protection and comprehensive medical care;

(*g*) Adequate protection for the life and health of workers in all occupations;

(*h*) Provision for child welfare and maternity protection;

(*i*) The provision of adequate nutrition, housing and facilities for recreation and culture;

(*j*) The assurance of equality of educational and vocational opportunity.

Child-Labor Kits

Kits of material have been prepared by the National Child Labor Committee to assist local groups undertaking campaigns along the lines suggested in the Child Labor Manifesto (see *The Child*, February 1944). The kits contain suggestions as to procedures and pertinent reference material for use in awakening public opinion and organizing remedial measures against illegal child labor, legal but excessive part-time employment, and the wholesale exodus of children from schools to work.

The subjects covered are: Study of physical-examination procedure for work permits; Campaign to reduce illegal employment; Stay-in-school campaign; Survey of work by school children outside of school hours; and Cooperative school and part-time work programs.

These kits, and also two kits prepared by the National Board, Young Women's Christian Associations, on vocational-counseling services and on discussion groups for employed young people, can be obtained free of charge from the National Child Labor Committee, 419 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, N. Y.

CONFERENCE CALENDAR

June 12–16. American Medical Association. Annual session. Chicago. Permanent headquarters: 535 North Dearborn Street, Chicago.

June 20–23. American Home Economics Association. Chicago. Permanent headquarters: 620 Mills Building, Washington.

June 27–July 3. Christian Youth Conference of North America. Lakeside, Ohio. For further information: The International Council of Religious Education, 203 North Wabash Avenue, Chicago.

July 4–7. National Education Association of the United States. Eighty-second annual meeting. Pittsburgh. Permanent headquarters: 1201 Sixteenth Street NW., Washington.

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